

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО КУЛЬТУРИ ТА ІНФОРМАЦІЙНОЇ  
ПОЛІТИКИ УКРАЇНИ**

**ХАРКІВСЬКА ДЕРЖАВНА АКАДЕМІЯ КУЛЬТУРИ**

Кафедра іноземних мов



**ENGLISH for PSYCHOLOGY STUDENTS**

**Збірник текстів та вправ для здобувачів  
спеціальності «Психологія»**

**Навчально-методичний посібник**



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Мета посібника «English for Psychology Students. Збірник текстів та вправ для студентів спеціальності: “Психологія”» – сприяти формуванню у студентів умінь і навичок читання англомовних фахових текстів та здатності до їх критичного аналізу, а також дати студентам змогу ознайомитися з деякими актуальними проблемами галузі психології і підвищити свій фаховий рівень.

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## ПЕРЕДМОВА

У сучасних умовах глобалізації виходу України в єдиний освітній, культурний та інформаційний простір володіння англійською мовою набуває особливої ваги. Англійська практично стала мовою міжнародного професійного спілкування: ділової кореспонденції, наукових та практичних конференцій, наукових публікацій. Лише за допомогою англійської мови можна одержати доступ до більшості ресурсів світової інформаційної комп'ютерної мережі Інтернет. Тому для майбутніх спеціалістів з психології володіння англійською мовою є невід'ємною частиною їхньої професійної підготовки.

**Мета** посібника «Збірник текстів та вправ для студентів спеціальності: Психологія» двоєдина: з одного боку, це розвиток навичок усного й письмового спілкування англійською мовою (функціонально обмеженого майбутніми професійними потребами); з іншого боку, автори цих матеріалів прагнули дати студентам змогу ознайомитися з деякими актуальними проблемами галузі психології і підвищити свій фаховий рівень.

Відповідно, **завдання** посібника «Збірник текстів та вправ для студентів спеціальності: Психологія» полягає в тому, щоб сформувати у студентів уміння та навички, необхідні й достатні для обробки англомовної фахової інформації і для професійного усного та письмового спілкування в перебігу міжнародних контактів.

Навчально-методичні матеріали посібника «Збірник текстів та вправ для студентів спеціальності: Психологія» складаються з 5 тематичних блоків (Units), зв'язаних між собою змістовими складовими, граматичних вправ та текстів (Texts for Additional Reading) для самостійної роботи студентів.

Кожний із 5 блоків (Units) навчально-методичних матеріалів посібника містить тексти й теми для обговорення та письмових повідомлень (Topics for Composition and Discussion). Текстовий матеріал складається з текстів трьох видів: текст А – аналітичне читання для аудиторної роботи; В – синтетичне читання для самостійної роботи в аудиторії та його переказ, С – синтетичне читання для самостійної роботи вдома. Кожний блок являє собою тематичну цілісність і охоплює певне коло споріднених професійних проблем:

Unit 1. Introduction to Psychology.

Unit 2. Educational Psychology.

Unit 3. People Habits and Behaviour.

Unit 4. Memory.

Unit 5. Perception.

Текстовий матеріал підібрано із сучасних електронних англomовних джерел. Автентичність текстів максимально збережена; лише в деяких випадках автори вдавалися до незначних спрощень та адаптації.

Навчальний матеріал подано відповідно до дидактичних принципів “від простого до складного” та повторюваності лексичних елементів, термінології і граматичних явищ.

## Unit 1

### INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

#### Quiz

*What is psychology?*

*How is it connected to biology?*

*What's the origin of the word?*

Exercise 1.

*Read the text below:*

#### **Text A. Psychology**

**Psycho-** is a learned borrowing from Greek meaning breath, soul, spirit, and mind. In Greek mythology Psyche (soul or butterfly) was the human bride of Eros, the god of love. Before she is allowed to marry Eros she is forced to undergo many difficult ordeals. Apuleius tells the story of Eros and Psyche in his *Metamorphoses*. Psychology was considered a study of the soul.

**Psychology is** 1) the science of the mind or of mental states and processes: the science of human nature; 2) the science of human and animal behaviour; 3) the sum of the mental states and processes of the person or of a number of persons, especially as determining action (e.g. the psychology of a soldier at the battle). Literally, the word psychology means the science of the mind. Most contemporary psychologists would define psychology as the science of the behaviour of organisms. By behaviour, they mean

activities and processes that can be observed objectively — both the isolated reactions of muscles, glands and other parts of the organisms and the organized, goal-directed patterns of reaction that characterize the organism as a whole. Psychologists also interpret behaviour to include internal processes — thinking, emotional reactions and the like — which one person cannot observe directly in another but which can be inferred from observation of external behaviour.

**Behaviour** is determined by a complex of factors that are partly biological, partly anthropological, partly sociological, and partly psychological. Therefore, psychology is closely connected to both the biological and social sciences. Psychologists study basic functions such as learning, memory, language, thinking, emotions, and motives. They investigate development throughout mental and physical health care. They also treat people who are emotionally distressed. So, it is very important for them to know all about social influences on individuals, the role of the brain and the nervous system in such functions as memory, language, sleep, attention, movement, perception, hunger, anger and joy. Although psychology has been concerned primarily with the behaviour of human individuals and groups, it has also dealt with the study of animal behaviour. Although great care is always necessary in interpreting human behaviour in the light of findings from animal

experiments, animal psychology has greatly contributed to the study of human beings.

Exercise 2.

*Answer the following questions*

***What does behaviour mean?***

***Read the definition of psychology as a science and try to explain it in your own words.***

Exercise 3.

*Read and retell the text below:*

**Text B. Physiology**

**Physiology** is the study of the parts and systems of the human body and how they work. You can't learn about a person's inner world without an idea about the human physiology. Physiological psychology is concerned with the way the body functions and the effect of its activity on behaviour.

**Psychoanalysis is** 1) a systematic structure of theories concerning the relations of conscious and unconscious psychological processes; 2) a technical procedure of investigating unconscious mental processes and for treating psychoneuroses.

**Four types of temperament.**

In medieval physiology, temperament is any of the four conditions of body and mind: the sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric

(or bilious), and melancholic, each of them attributed to an excess of one of the four corresponding humors (body liquids). It is one's customary frame of mind or natural disposition, nature that is excitable, moody, capricious, volatile, etc. **Sanguine** (from "sanguis" – "blood"), having the warm passionate, cheerful temperament and the healthy, ruddy complexion of one in whom the blood is the predominant humour of the four. The person is usually heavy, cheerful, confident, red-faced, jolly, generous, self-indulgent optimistic and hopeful sort of person.

**Melancholy** — black bile in medieval physiology is considered to be one of the four humours to come from the spleen or kidney, and to cause gloominess, irritability or depression. Melancholy is a gloomy, pessimistic, quiet and brooding person.

**Choleric** is having choler as the predominant humour, hence of bilious temperament. In medieval times, choler (bile) was considered one of the body's four humours and the source of anger and irritability. Choleric is a quick-tempered, excitable, aggressive and energetic person, usually thin and wiry.

**Phlegmatic** — a slow, lethargic, apathetic, hard to rouse to action, sluggish, dull kind of person. Phlegm is a fluid, clammy body humour that was believed to cause sluggishness or dullness.

#### Exercise 4.

*Answer the following questions*



*What is physiology?*

*How is it connected to psychology?*

*What is psychoanalysis?*

*What four types of temperament do you know?*

**Read the definitions and try to explain in your own words.**

Exercise 5.

*Read and translate the text below:*

**Text C. *What is Gestalt psychology?***

The German word Gestalt means configuration or pattern. Gestalt psychologists argue that an organism will see an object as a whole. This is because the brain imposes patterns on the raw material of perception. The patterns tend to make complete forms, and incomplete forms are completed by the organizing activity of the brain. When problem solving it is argued that individuals receive “insights” into the total situation: the total pattern suddenly becomes obvious. Gestalt school of psychology that interprets phenomena as organized wholes rather than as aggregates of distinct parts, maintaining that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. The term Gestalt was coined by the philosopher Christian von Ehrenfels in 1890, to denote experiences that require more than the basic sensory capacities to comprehend. Gestalt psychologists suggest that the events in the

brain bear a structural correspondence to psychological events; indeed, it has been shown that steady electric currents in the brain correspond to structured perceptual events. The Gestalt school has made substantial contributions to the study of learning, recall, and the nature of associations, as well as important contributions to personality and social psychology. In therapy, the analyst encourages clients to release their emotions, and to recognize these emotions for what they are.

Intelligence, in psychology, the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationships and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing, and adjusting to new situations. Alfred Binet, the French psychologist, defined intelligence as the totality of mental processes involved in adapting to the environment. Although there remains a strong tendency to view intelligence as a purely intellectual or cognitive function, considerable evidence suggests that intelligence has many facets.

Experimental psychology describes an approach to psychology that treats it as one of the natural sciences, and therefore assumes that it is susceptible to the experimental method. Many experimental psychologists have gone further, and have assumed that all methods of investigation other than

experimentation are suspect. In particular, experimental psychologists have been inclined to discount the case study and interview methods as they have been used in clinical and developmental psychology. Wilhelm Wundt was one of the first experimental psychologists and is credited with starting the first psychology laboratory. Introspection, a process used by Wundt in his laboratory, is a way of examining one's own conscious experience through self-observation of one's thoughts, feelings and sensations. Structuralism, the name of Wundt's approach to experimental psychology is a system of thought that tried to analyze sensations and subjective experience into its basic building blocks.

Functionalism, another psychological system of thought, focuses on how mental activity enables people to function and survive. William James and other supporters of the functionalist movement were opposed to structuralism because they felt consciousness could not be broken down into components as if it were a physical structure. A key area of debate in psychology has been the extent to which our capacities are learnt versus the extent to which they are innate (this issue is closely related to the more general nature-nurture debate in biology). Behaviourism is a system of thought which holds that only strictly observable phenomena are worthy of psychological study. John B. Watson is

considered to be the “father” of behaviourism. The behaviourism of B. F. Skinner viewed behaviour as being learnt through a process of conditioning — the association of stimuli with responses. The influence of behaviourism took a blow with the work of the psycho-linguist Noam Chomsky on language acquisition. Chomsky argued that the stimulus available to an infant was simply not rich enough to allow language-learning through Skinnerian conditioning, and that the human brain must have an innate capacity for, or predisposition towards language learning. This idea that the brain has a specialized Language Acquisition Device in many ways laid the foundation for the field now known as cognitive psychology, which tends to view the mind in terms of more or less specialized functions or processes.

Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1950s in reaction to both behaviourism and psychoanalysis. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings and their behaviour by conducting qualitative research. Among sciences humanistic psychology focuses on basic and applied science. Humanistic psychology is concerned with the subjective experience of human beings and views using quantitative methods in the study of the human mind and behaviour as misguided and instead stresses qualitative research. It emerged in the 1950s in reaction to both behaviourism

and psychoanalysis. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings, rather than conventional statistical one. There is a branch of psychology which uses methods to investigate the subjective experience of human beings; clinical psychology.

Clinical psychology is concerned with helping people who have mental disorders. It is the practice of outpatient mental health treatment. Examples of clinical psychology include psychotherapy, art therapy, and cognitive therapy.

Prior to the 20th century, there was little, if any, help available for sufferers of mental health problems. In the early 20th century, Sigmund Freud developed a mental health treatment known as psychoanalysis. In order to practice psychoanalysis, a great deal of training was required of the practitioner. Consequently, the cost of psychoanalysis was also high.

Unlike clinical psychology, counseling psychology is generally a joint-venture of both psychology departments and departments of education. Counseling psychologists focus primarily on helping people overcome or better manage pathologies as well as transcend perceived limitations.

Developmental psychology is the study of human growth and changes in behaviour from conception to death. Jean Piaget was one of the most famous and influential researchers in

developmental psychology. The nature-nurture issue deals with whether human growth results from interaction with others and with the physical world (nurture) or if the key to development is heredity (nature). Jean Piaget, as well as most developmental psychologists today, believed that changes in behaviour result from a combination of nurture and nature. **Psychometric psychology** is the psychological specialty involved with developing, administering, and analyzing tests. James McKeen Cattell, an assistant to Wundt, was the first psychologist to suggest the term “mental test.” He began using tests to assess how humans used mental ability to solve problems and survive.

**Psychiatry** is the medical field specializing in mental health issues, thereby overlapping with clinical psychology. Clinical and counseling psychologists often work in co-operation with psychiatrists, social workers, psychiatric nurses and “lay” counselors. Psychiatrists are often involved in providing psychopharmacological care including antidepressant, anti-anxiety, antipsychotic and mood-stabilizing medication. Services aimed at mental or behavioural problems are also often provided by traditional healers and religious counselors.

**Applied psychology** is a more general term, referring to solving problems and answering questions that could help solve problems faced by people and society. For example, researching

how animals won't eat novel foods after getting ill, even if the food didn't cause the illness, has helped explain why cancer patients have difficulty eating after chemotherapy. To deal with the problems in psychology you first have to know a certain professional vocabulary that would help you read comprehension and express your thoughts. The main purpose of this book is to help you in this mission

**Psychology today.** Human consciousness is in a place of self-awareness and creating balance as it moves out of the dark ages back to the higher frequency of light and thought. To understand how the psyche works, one must understand its nature based on duality, as it seeks to create balance in a world of challenges. We live in a time of recognition that we have issues that we are trying to heal and overcome which has held us back. We combine physical and metaphysical healing to create a union of body, mind and soul. As a bi-polar experiment in time and emotions, the souls have met challenges at every turn, presently facing their issues and seeking help from professionals, books, healers, other.

Exercise 6.

*Answer the following questions*

***What is Gestalt psychology?***

***What is Psychometric psychology?***

## ***What is Applied psychology?***

### **Exercise 7.**

*Topics for composition and discussion.*

Psychology is the science of the mind or of mental states and processes: the science of human nature.

Modern Psychology.

## **GRAMMAR EXERCISES**

***Exercise 1. Use the Present Indefinite Tense of the verbs in brackets. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.***

My working day (to begin) at seven o'clock. I (to get) up, (to switch) on the radio and (to do) my morning exercises. It (to take) me fifteen minutes. At half past seven we (to have) breakfast. My father and I (to leave) home at eight o'clock. He (to take) a bus to his factory. My mother (to be) a doctor, she (to leave) home at nine o'clock. In the evening we (to gather) in the living room. We (to watch) TV and (to talk).<sup>3</sup>

***Exercise 2. Translate the following sentences. Make them interrogative and negative.***

1. The children drink coffee in the evening. 2. Her sister dances very well. 3. Our grandmother grows potatoes. 4. The pupils remember this rule. 5. Nick goes to bed at ten. 6. They listen



to the radio in the morning. 7. You meet him every day. 8. It often snows in winter. 9. You want to play chess with him. 10. His mother teaches geography at school. 11. My brother wants to become a doctor. 12. She takes a bus. 13. The boys go in for sports. 14. She loves her parents. 15. His sister knows French.

**Exercise 3. Ask questions about the time and place of the action.**

1. They plant trees in autumn. 2. Peter comes to the University at eight. 3. They discuss films after classes. 4. We listen to the news at ten o'clock. 5. The teacher corrects our dictations in the evening. 6. Her brother studies in Lviv. 7. Many birds fly to the south in autumn. 8. They spend their holidays in the country. 9. My parents live in a village. 10. His group-mates go to the theatre in the evening.

**Exercise 4. Put questions to the italicized words.**

1. The children go to bed *at ten o'clock*. 2. His son knows English *well*. 3. My father reads *newspapers* in the evening. 4. Her aunt lives in *Lutsk*. 5. Our parents grow *wheat*. 6. This man works at a *machine-building plant*. 7. It snows *in winter*. 8. We buy *bread* at this shop. 9. *My* sister learns many poems by heart. 10. *Ann* helps her mother about the house. 11. At the lesson we *read and speak* English. 12. Her mother teaches *Ukrainian*. 13. Your brother works *at the hospital*. 14. Some people want to study

English *because they want to work abroad.*

**Exercise 5. Translate into English.**

1. Де ти живеш? – Я живу в Києві. 2. Коли в тебе канікули? – У січні. 3. Що тобі найбільше подобається в університеті? 4. Мій брат працює в лікарні. Він лікар. Він встає в двадцять хвилин на восьму. Він працює вранці і вдень. Увечері він не працює. Увечері він відпочиває. 5. Твоя сестра говорить французькою мовою? – Ні. Вона говорить німецькою мовою, а її чоловік говорить англійською мовою. 6. Коли ви встаєте? – Я встаю за чверть сьома. 7. Коли встає твій брат? – Він встає за двадцять восьма. – А твоя сестра також встає за двадцять восьма? – Ні. Вона встає о дев'ятій годині. 8. Я вивчаю англійську мову. Мій друг також вивчає англійську мову. 9. Де ти живеш? Де живе твій товариш? 10. Де працюють твої батьки? 11. Що ви робите після уроків? 12. Хіба ви не вивчаєте фізики? 13. Хто живе в цьому будинку? 14. Мені не подобається ця книжка. 15. Моєму товаришеві не подобається це оповідання.

**Unit 2**  
**EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**Quiz**

*Do you know what psychology is concerned with?*

***Exercise 1.***

*Read the text below:*

**Text A. The Field of Educational Psychology**

At birth, the child brings his biological inheritance with him into this world. Characteristics of his biological heredity are not sufficient in themselves to enable him to live harmoniously in a social culture such as ours. An important task of the school is to assist the learner in meeting or discovering his cultural heritage. It is through the guidance of children in growth and development that they acquire skills, information, understanding, concepts, and attitudes concerning their social heritage. However, much of the acquisition of social heritage is informal in nature. Furthermore, much of the child's education takes place outside the supervision and direction of the schools.

Although the school is only one of a number of forces which affect the child's educational development, it has always been concerned with the teaching of certain aspects of the social heritage to growing boys and girls. Throughout the history of education, scholars have set forth challenging theories and

viewpoints on the problems of growth and learning. The beginnings of educational psychology are to be found within these.

Psychology, conceived of as the science of behaviour, is concerned with the study of man wherever he may be found. It is no longer confined to the laboratory. As an applied science it deals with human behaviour in industrial situations, in business situations, in social situations, in educational situations, and in whatever other situations such behaviour is involved. Educational psychology may be regarded as psychology applied to human behaviour in educational situations.

*Exercise 2. Answer the following questions.*

*How do you characterize education psychology?*

*What is the school task in school children's upbringing?*

*Exercise 3.*

*Read and retell the text below:*

### **Text B. The Individual**

*How much does the hereditary process influence an individual development?*

*The individual* concerned with the guidance and direction of children should have a clear understanding of the nature of their growth and development. The parent who recognizes that growth

follows an orderly process will not attempt to drive the child in his motor, mental, and emotional development. The teacher who recognizes that individual differences exist in the rate of growth among children will not expect all children to produce a similar quality of work in their school assignments.

The new-born infant is a product of two family lines. His development begins with the fertilization of the egg cell. From the moment of conception, the new life is influenced by various environmental stimuli. These stimuli help to mold the potentialities for growth and development that he inherits from his parents. Thus, the infant at birth is patterned by hereditary and environmental influences. The interdependence of these influences may be noted in all aspects of the child's development. For example, the development of oral speech must await the maturation of certain physiological structures involved in the production of differentiated sounds.

***The hereditary process.*** Man is composed of two types of cells: somatic *and* germ. Somatic cells are body cells, not directly involved in reproduction. During the period of growth, they divide to produce body growth and repair cells. The germ cells are specifically concerned with reproduction. They exist from the earlier fertile stage but do not assume their special characteristics until after the period of puberty when reproduction becomes

possible. The union of the germ cells of the male and female under favourable circumstances produces the fertilized egg, which is the actual beginning of a new life. The male germ cells are referred to as spermatozoa, while the female germ cells are known as ova. The ovum, usually referred to as the egg cell, differs from the sperm in size and shape.

Within a species, all cells, except those involved in reproduction, possess the same complement of chromosomes. In the fertilized egg cell the chromosomes appear in pairs, there being 24 from each parent, making a total of 48. These chromosomes contain a very large number of smaller units, the genes. These genes carry the inheritance of unitary traits, such as the colour of the hair. Like the chromosomes, the genes are in pairs, that is, there is one gene for hair colour in one chromosome, and there is another gene for hair colour in the homologous chromosome. These genes interact in a number of complex ways. The manner in which they produce the traits of the individual is known as the *laws of heredity*.

***The role of selection.*** The gene combination present in the newly formed embryo consists of two corresponding sets of genes from each parent. This combination produces both similarities and diversities. These similarities may be observed among newborn infants in all areas of the world. However, except for identical

twins, there are always differences discernible. These differences appear in their physical appearance, potentialities for development, and dynamic characteristics.

The infant emerges as a physical and dynamic being. From the beginning of its existence the complex organism is a product of two sets of genes. The role of selection is such that a close system of inbreeding will ultimately separate a mixed stock into a genetically pure line.

Environment has sometimes been regarded as a passive place in which an individual's behaviour occurs. Such a viewpoint regards the environment as a setting for behaviour, rather than as an active stimulating agent. From an educational standpoint, environment may best be thought of as consisting of a myriad of specific stimuli that stimulate the individual to action. Some of these are visible while others, such as the feelings, aspirations, thoughts, and attitudes of others are in the main invisible.

Various attempts have been made to identify the influences of heredity and the environment as unique forces. When heredity and environment are studied in relation to the organism, it will be observed that they operate together rather than as separate forces in producing changes in behaviour and physical characteristics of the individual.

***Interaction of heredity and environment.*** The most

widely recognized principle involving the operation of heredity and environment upon the development of the individual is that of the interaction between the two. The tendency of early students of child development to classify all behaviour as exclusively hereditary or environmental met with many difficulties. It thus became apparent to many students concerned with these problems that the two were closely related and that most behaviour could not be classified exclusively into either of these two categories.

***Exercise 4.***

*Answer the following questions*

***How much does the hereditary process influence individual development?***

***How do hereditary and environment interact?***

***Exercise 5.***

*Read and translate the text below:*

**Text C. Principles of Growth**

As the child emerges from one developmental period to another certain changes may be observed. Studies show that these changes tend to follow certain fairly well-defined principles. These are here referred to as principles of growth. The most obvious change that takes place in children is their growth in size, although growth is not confined to size. It includes changes in complexity, proportion, and qualitative characteristics as well as



size. Furthermore, the term *growth* is not confined to physical changes in structure or form but applies also to the behaviour and achievement of children. We speak of growth in language skills, motor growth, social growth, emotional growth, and other aspects of growth.

The terms *growth* and *development* have at times been used interchangeably. That there is no clear-cut distinction may be observed from the many different ways in which development is used. The term *development* has been used with reference to changes in complexity and design or pattern, while *growth* has been regarded as change in size. More recently, development has taken on an enlarged meaning and is thought of in terms of total development. In this case, development is closely related to maturation or maturity. This may be observed in such words as child development, adolescent development, and human development. This is the general distinction made between the two terms, when such distinctions are made, in this text.

***Development proceeds from general to specific.*** The early motor responses of the child are mass movements. When the baby reaches for an object, he reaches with his whole body. He is able to use the large muscles before he can use the smaller muscles. This may be observed in the kicking of the baby before he can coordinate the leg muscles well enough to creep or crawl. The

baby recognizes the mother as a large moving object before he is able to discern the characteristics of the parts of the mother. Growth then proceeds from general to specific, from mass behaviour to specific or differentiated movements, and from general forms of behaviour to diffuse forms of behaviour.

***Growth is a continuous process.*** The various stages of life are often divided into different periods, largely for convenience in studying the different stages of development. This, however, has led many people to look upon growth as periodic in nature. There is good evidence from longitudinal studies of individual children that there is an *orderly sequence* for the emergence of different forms of behaviour. This should not lead one to conclude that the child's development is inadaptable to certain modifications, although a sound educational program will be cognizant of these behaviour patterns which emerge at different stages in the child's development. The scheduled behaviour at different age levels shows a gradual and continuous growth in the complexity of the behaviour performed.

What occurs at one stage of growth carries over and influences the subsequent growth stages. This process takes place at a slow regular pace, rather than by leaps and bounds. It can be stated as a fundamental growth principle that each stage in the development of the individual is an outgrowth of an earlier stage,

not a mere addition to it.

Deviations in growth may be observed in mental, emotional, and social traits as well as in physical traits. Two children with the same reading ability at the age of seven may reveal significant differences in subsequent years.

The growth rate of each individual is affected by many forces both within and without the body. This has at times been listed as a fundamental growth principle. The prediction of growth is made very difficult by this fact.

It is important for the teacher and others concerned with the education of children to understand individual differences in the rate of growth. Parents, likewise, should realize that such differences are normal and that a deviation of one child from another should not be a source of disturbance. The timing of the growth spurt which takes place around the beginning of adolescence will vary considerably from individual to individual of the same sex. The failure on the part of teachers and parents to recognize these differences in the rate and timing of certain growth features is often a source of misinterpretation and faulty guidance.

***The child develops as a unified whole.*** Although we speak and write of physical growth, motor growth, mental growth, emotional growth, and other aspects of growth, we should realize at all times that it is the *total child* who is growing. The

interrelation of growth has received considerable attention in recent years as a result of the great amount of research that has been conducted on problems of child growth and the development of the organismic concept of studying children. The organismic viewpoint emphasizes the harmony and the interrelation of the growth of the component parts of the individual. Thus, the organism is conceived of as a closely knit community with the individual growing and functioning in a unitary manner rather than in a nonrelated manner.

The growth of the child as a unified whole may be very well illustrated by his growth in the ability to creep, crawl, and walk. This growth, in the case of the average child, will be accompanied by changes in interests, attention, mental outlook, and social behaviour. Furthermore, it can be shown that changes in interests and social behaviour are closely related to growth in language and motor coordination. This interrelation is so close that when one is lacking or delayed the other will be affected. The individual passes gradually from one stage to another in his learning and maturation, preserving a patterned integration throughout life. In other words, growth and development are patterns rather than isolated aspects affected by the addition of minute increments to separate parts. Learning and development do not take place in a piecemeal fashion in which unrelated items

appear at different periods and at some later date become fashioned into a unified pattern. The entire child is involved in learning to read and skate. The child's emotional nature, social self, and physical self are involved, along with the intellectual self, in the acquisition of reading and language skills.

***Behaviour patterns change with maturity.*** Children display many forms of behaviour at different levels of maturity that will be modified or abandoned as they grow older. If adults, concerned with the guidance of growing boys and girls, were better informed about the changes that occur and were patient enough to study these more or less sequential growth patterns, the problem of being a parent or teacher would be simpler and more pleasant. The child would grow and develop toward maturity with less difficulty and confusion. This principle of development includes the concept that behaviour activities that appear at one stage or level of maturity are modified or abandoned at a later stage in favour of activities more useful and harmonious with the child's total development.

***Exercise 6.***

*Answer the following questions*

***What are the aspects of an individual's growth?***

***Why do behaviour patterns change with maturity?***

***Exercise 7.***

*Topics for composition and discussion.*

***Growth is a continuous process.***

***Individual growth. What does it mean?***

**GRAMMAR EXERCISES**

***Exercise 1. Make the following interrogative and negative.***

1. The teacher repeated the question. 2. His wife planned her work well. 3. Their children cleaned the garden and then they played basketball. 4. The girl answered the question at once. 5. They slept in the open air. 6. The clock struck ten. 7. The little girl cried a little and then smiled. 8. She cooked a good dinner. 9. They waited for a bus. 10. The bus arrived at five.

***Exercise 2. Change the following into the Past Simple Tense.***

1. The girl learns English. 2. My friend gets up early. 3. The worker comes home at six. 4. The old women talk about the weather. 5. Nick goes to bed at ten. 6. You meet him very often in summer. 7. His mother comes home late. 8. The meeting lasts about two hours. 9. They live in France. 10. They travel there by train. 11. They are at school. 12. You are tired. 13. Peter is ill. 14. Is the doctor at the hospital? 15. I am a student. 16. The girls are at the theatre.

***Exercise 3. Put questions to the italicized words:***

1. They sat *in the first* row. 2. The performance lasted *for two hours*. 3. He went to Kyiv *to see some friends*. 4. She put the mail *on my desk*. 5. He walked to the university *with Mary*. 6. They spoke to us *in French*. 7. He arrived home *very late*. 8. I found my English book *yesterday*. 9. She played tennis *badly*. 10. They lost their way *because it was dark*.

#### **Exercise 4. Translate into English.**

1. Діти допомагали батькам. 2. Батько прийшов додому пізно. 3. Що ви робили в неділю? 4. Де ти був учора ввечері? – Я ходив у кіно. Тобі сподобався фільм? – Так, фільм мені дуже сподобався. 5. Що ви робили на уроці англійської мови? – Ми читали новий текст, відповідали на запитання і перекладали речення з української мови на англійську. 6. Коли ви почали вивчати англійську мову? – Ми почали вивчати англійську мову три роки тому. 7. Скільки сторінок ви прочитали минулого тижня? – Минулого тижня я прочитав десять сторінок. Мені подобається ця книжка. 8. О котрій годині ти звичайно встаєш? – Я встаю о сьомій годині. 9. О котрій годині ти встав учора? – Вчора я встав о восьмій. Я завжди встаю о восьмій у неділю. 10. Коли твої друзі приходили до тебе? Хто приходив до тебе вчора?

#### **Exercise 5. Open the brackets using the verbs in Present**

### **Simple or Past Simple Tense.**

1. Tom always (to eat) breakfast. 2. Yesterday he (not to eat) breakfast because he (to get) up late. 3. We (to like) to cook but we (not to like) to wash dishes. 4. He never (to shout) at his students. He (to be) a wonderful teacher, I remember. 5. My friend (to know) Spanish very well. 6. Who (to ring) you up an hour ago? 7. He (to live) on the third floor. 8. It (to take) you long to find his house yesterday? 9. When your lessons (to be) over on Monday? 10. I (to have) dinner with my family yesterday. 11. Her friend (to be) ready at five o'clock. 11. The teacher (to correct) our dictations after classes. 12. Yesterday he (to correct) our test papers in the evening. 13. The test (to be) difficult? 14. You (to make) many mistakes in your dictation last week? 15. My brother (not to know) French. He (to speak) only English.



**UNIT 3**  
**PEOPLE'S HABITS AND BEHAVIOUR**

**Quiz**

*Do you express feelings directly?*

*How often do you deny your feelings?*

**Exercise 1.**

*Read the text below:*

**Text A. Expressing your feelings out**

Sometimes it's a good thing to say what you feel. At other times it's better to keep quiet about your feelings. Sometimes it's hard to know exactly what you feel. At other times feelings are so strong they seem to overwhelm you. How often do you express what you feel?

**Controlling or letting feelings out**

The stereotype of the English is that they are cold, reserved and unemotional. Compared with the extravagant French or the explosive Italians, the English are an uptight lot. If they do feel anything they are not likely to let you know. It's a caricature, but it has some truth in it.

We grow up in a culture, which tells us that it's good to control our feelings. We learn that it's best to restrain our warmth, our tears and our anger. We learn that it's better to be rational. But is it? What happens to feelings you don't express? Many people

argue they don't just disappear. They continue to exist under the surface and affect the way you feel and behave.

Anger that you don't express to others can become anger that you turn against yourself. Fears that you don't talk about may make you timid in all things. You may put on a brave front but inside you are fearful and anxious. Hurts and disappointments that you've never cried over may make you protect yourself hard against any possible new hurt and become overcautious about getting close to others.

### **How do you show your feelings?**

The following quiz looks at some feelings that are common to us all and some of the different ways that people react to them.

Reactions can range from expressing the feelings spontaneously and directly to finding some way of denying that it exists at all. For each section circle the answer that is most often typical of you.

### ***ANGER***

When you feel angry, which of the following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Raising your voice or shouting at the person you're angry with
- b) Explaining quietly why you're angry
- c) Trying not to be angry (perhaps because you think it's wrong)

or unfair)

- d) Telling yourself you are not really angry or that you've not really got anything to be angry about

### ***FEELING HAPPY***

When you are feeling happy, which of the following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Laughing and smiling, telling someone how you feel
- b) Analysing to yourself or others the reasons why you're happy
- c) Going around with an inner glow
- d) Telling yourself this can't last, it's not really true or it's not right to be happy when others aren't

### ***FEELING SAD OR UPSET***

When you feel sad or upset, which of the following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Crying about it to someone else
- b) Talking to a friend about what's upset you
- c) Going away and crying on your own
- d) Telling yourself you don't really feel upset or sad or that you don't really have anything to feel upset or sad about

### ***FEELING DISGUST OR DISLIKE***

When you feel disgust or dislike, which of the following

reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Screwing up your face, grimacing as you say what you feel
- b) Telling a friend how much you dislike or feel disgusted about something or someone
- c) Controlling your disgust or dislike
- d) Pretending that nothing's happened, ignoring the things or people that make you feel this way

***FEELING FRIGHTENED OR WORRIED***

When you feel frightened or worried, which of the following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Trembling, shaking or crying as you tell someone how you feel
- b) Talking to a friend about the things that are frightening or worrying you
- c) Going away on your own and crying about it or feeling bad
- d) Telling yourself you don't really feel frightened or worried or that you don't really have anything to feel frightened or worried about

***FEELING WARMTH OR AFFECTION FOR OTHERS***

When you feel warmth or affection for others, which of the

following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Touching, holding, embracing, and kissing other people
- b) Talking to a friend about the way you feel
- c) Deciding not to express how you feel, perhaps because you are afraid you might get hurt
- d) Telling yourself it's sloppy and sentimental to feel like this about people and pushing the feelings away

***FEELING EMBARRASSED OR ASHAMED***

When you feel embarrassed or ashamed, which of the following reactions would be most typical of you?

- a) Laughing in embarrassment as you try to explain to someone why you feel embarrassed or ashamed
- b) Telling a friend later about how you felt embarrassed or why you felt so ashamed
- c) Swallowing hard and wishing the floor would open so that you could disappear from sight
- d) Pretending you're not in the least embarrassed or ashamed and putting an arrogant or cocky face on it.

**DO YOU...**

***EXPRESS FEELINGS DIRECTLY?***

The "a" statements show ways in which feelings can be

expressed directly. You feel something and you show it.

### ***TALK ABOUT THEM?***

The "B" statements show ways in which feelings can be partially expressed by talking about them. Talking about your feelings can help you get clear about what you feel. You can get support. You may start to build up the confidence to express feelings more directly.

### ***KEEP THEM TO YOURSELF?***

The "c" statements are about trying to control your feelings. Sometimes you may feel it's best to keep quiet about what you feel. You may not want to make yourself vulnerable before others. Or you may decide that expressing your feelings would be destructive to someone else. If you always keep your feelings to yourself, however, you may find that they start to come out in other ways.

### ***DENY THEM?***

The "d" statements are about ways of denying your feelings altogether. You may think they're not nice. Or you may be frightened of their strength. Again, these denied feelings may emerge in other ways.

*Exercise 2.*

*Answer the following questions*

*Imagine the following situations and say, what you are going to do if you face such situations.*

You are waiting for your turn in a line for the railway tickets. There is no much time left before the departure, and you are nervous. Suddenly there appears a man who pushes his way to the cashier's window and wants to buy a ticket without waiting in the line. What is your reaction?

You are having an exam on a very difficult discipline. You are very nervous because you aren't sure about your knowledge. But you are lucky today. You get an excellent grade when you expected only a satisfactory one. How will you behave when you go out of the examination room?

You are on public transport. You accidentally stepped on someone's foot, and hurt the person. The person cries "Ouch" and turns his (her) face to you. You raise your eyes and see that the person is a rector (head of the department, etc.) What is your reaction?

*Remember and tell situations from your own experience, which made you feel and behave in unusual way.*

### Exercise 3.

*Read and retell the text below:*

#### **Text B. Are you on top of the world?**

*These days most doctors and scientists agree that our physical*

*health is closely related to our psychological well-being. But just what have the experts discovered about what makes us feel good?*

### **Some things that can make you feel better...**

#### **Getting moving**

As well as being important to your physical health, regular exercises is now believed to improve your psychological state by releasing endorphins or "happy chemicals" into the brain. Some researchers consider it can be just as valuable as psychotherapy in helping depression, and engendering a more positive outlook. Even a brisk ten-minute walk every day can help according to researchers.

#### **A lively social life**

According to experts, companionship and social support are vital to both psychological and physical well-being — one reason, perhaps, why married people tend to live longer than unmarried ones. Modern researchers emphasize the value of group social activities in this respect. "Relationships we form at church or in clubs tend to be more supportive and uncritical than those we form at work or in the family", says Professor Michael Argyle, of Oxford Brookes University, "and these positive relationships improve our self-esteem, which is vital to our physical and mental health." This is backed up by recent research which shows, perhaps surprisingly, that people who spend more time with others



actually get fewer colds and viruses than those who stay at home on their own. In fact, social support is so important to our mental and **physical** well-being that it may even increase our life expectancy!

### **Watching soap operas on TV**

One rather surprising piece of research found that on average age, people who regularly watch soaps on television are significantly happier than those who don't! Psychologists believe that this is because such programs provide viewers with an imaginary set of friends, and a sense of belonging to a community, in the same way, that a club or a church might.

### **Self- indulgence**

Many scientists these days believe that indulging in life's little pleasures — a bar of chocolate, a shopping trip — can actually improve your health, because of the psychological lift it gives you. "There is evidence, for example," says Professor David Warburton of Reading University, 'those old people living in residential homes that have cocktail hour each day actually live longer! Indulging — in moderation — in the small pleasures of life can make people calmer, alleviate stress and provide positive health benefits. There is a lot of truth in the old saying that "a little

of what you fancy does you good."

## **AND SOME THAT CAN MAKE YOU FEEL WORSE**

### **Low self- esteem**

Feeling like a loser, it seems, can damage your health. Research by the National Rheumatism and Arthritis Council showed that workers who feel undervalued or out of control at work, are significantly more likely to suffer from back problems. Depression, a spokesman claimed, is actually far more likely to cause backache than heavy lifting. Professor Warburton believes that one of the greatest health threats comes from negative feelings such as depression or guilt, which create stress hormones, producing cholesterol.

### **Lack of bright light**

Scientists have known for some time about Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD): a form of depression caused by lack of light in winter, and thought to explain relatively high suicide rates in countries such as Sweden, where for parts of the year days are very short. However, recent research has shown that those working night shifts in factories can suffer from the same problem, leading to stress and depression. The problem can be overcome by illuminating workplaces with lights three times brighter than

usual, making workers feel happier and more alert.

### **A low-fat diet**

A low-fat diet may be good for your waistline, but the latest research suggests that it is less beneficial psychologically. A team of volunteers at Sheffield University asked to follow a diet consisting of just twenty-five per cent fat (the level recommended by the World Health Organization) reported a marked increase in feelings of hostility and depression. And an earlier piece of research revealed, startlingly, that people on low-fat diets are more likely to meet a violent death!

### **Drinking coffee**

Many of us are already aware that drinking coffee raises your blood pressure and can cause anxiety, but according to the latest research, it can also make you bad-tempered. Mice that were given regular doses of caffeine by researchers, were found to be unusually aggressive!

### **The wrong genes**

Despite all the changes we make to our behaviour, diet; and environment there is growing evidence that at the end of the day, whether we are cheerful or miserable is largely a question of our genes. "Of course, what happens to you in your life will make difference to how happy you are" say scientists, "but there are two or three vital genes which probably decide how cheerful you are

in comparison to others in a similar situation." So whatever else you do, make sure you choose your genes carefully!

***Exercise 4.***

*Answer the following questions*

***What makes you feel happy?***

***Why do people sometimes feel unhappy?***

***Exercise 5.***

*Read and translate the text below:*

**Text C. A quiet revolution?**

As divorce rates rise and fewer couples bother with marriage, we ask if the traditional nuclear family is becoming a thing of the past. While you are reading this article, somewhere in the United States two couples will get married and another will get divorced. One in three American children now live with only one parent, and the United States is not alone in this: in Canada and France the divorce rate has doubled in the last twenty-five years, and in Hungary and Greece it has increased by 50 per cent. Even in Japan, where the traditional family is still strong, divorce went up by 15 per cent between 1980 and 1995. What is more, the nature of the family is changing. In Sweden and Denmark, around half of all babies are now born to unmarried parents and in the United Kingdom and France more than a third. Even in Ireland,

traditionally the most Catholic country in Europe, the rate of births outside marriage is 20 per cent.

Families are also getting smaller. The average Turkish family had seven members in 1970; today it has only five. And in Spain and Italy, where families were always traditionally large, the birth rate was the lowest in the developed world in 1995. This fall in the birth rate is due in part to the fact that, as more women have careers, they are waiting longer and longer to start a family. The age at which the average woman has her first baby is now 28 in Western Europe, and it is getting later.

So, the nuclear family is clearly changing, but is it in danger of disappearing completely?

The truth is that it is still too early to tell. In some countries, these patterns are actually reversing. In the United States, Scandinavia and the United Kingdom, the birth rate is rising once more; and in Denmark, for example, marriage is becoming more popular again. In the United States, the divorce rate in fact fell by 10 per cent between 1980 and 1990, and it is continuing to fall.

Perhaps a new revolution is beginning?

### *Mi-ran Lee*

Mi-ran Lee (32) lives in Seoul with her husband, He-soo Kim (36), and her two sons, Chul-soo (6) and Dong-min (4). He-soo is a manager in an electronics company; Mi-ran worked as a secretary

in the same company before her marriage eight years ago, but since then has been a full-time housewife. She has no plans to return to work: she believes it is essential that she is at home with her family, especially since He-soo, like most Korean executives, is expected to work very long hours. He often doesn't arrive home until after the boys are in bed.

***Nathalie Guerin***

Nathalie Guerin (35) lives in Montrouge, a suburb of Paris, with her 4-year-old daughter, Emili. She works part-time as a chemistry teacher in a local secondary school. She and Patrice live in Orleans, about 100 km away, with his new partner, Dominique. Emilie sees her father on alternate weekends, and, says Nathalie “has a close relationship with him”.

***Exercise 6.***

*Answer the following questions*

***How common are families like Nathalie's and Miran's in your country?***

***What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of each type of family?***

***Exercise 7.***

*Topics for composition and discussion.*

*How do we treat the people surrounding us?*

*How motivated your behaviour is?*

## GRAMMAR EXERCISES

**Exercise 1. Make the following interrogative and negative.**

1. Bob will graduate from the university next year. 2. There will be a dance at the end of the party. 3. I shall do what you want. 4. Harris will sing a comic song. 5. They will announce this news later today. 6. We shall take Jane for a picnic. 7. They will have a meeting tonight. 8. There will be many visitors today. 9. Tom will be put in hospital. 10. We shall have a history class tomorrow. 11. You will tell us about it. 12. The plane will take off in five minutes. 13. They will have porridge for breakfast. 14. Ann will like the present.

**Exercise 2. Put questions to the italicized words.**

1. Some of them will go *to Brighton* one of these days. 2. Next Sunday I shall write *a letter* to my friend. 3. Soon there will be many young trees *in the park*. 4. *Our friends* will come to see us today. 5. Jack won't go to the cinema *because he is busy*. 6. We'll play chess *tonight*. 7. *We'll* get up at seven tomorrow. 8. The plant will make *agricultural machines*.

**Exercise 3. Replace the infinitives in brackets by the Future Simple or the Present Simple Tense.**

1. If you (to come) at five o'clock, we (to see) an interesting program on TV. 2. Before you (to leave) home, ring me up. 3. As soon as you (to get) my letter, let me know. 4. When I (to enter) the University, I (to study) two foreign languages. 5. If you (to be) busy on Sunday afternoon, we (not to go) to the stadium. 6. If you (to look through) today's paper, you (to find) an interesting article. 7. When she (to arrive) at the hotel, it (to be) 5 o'clock. 8. When you (to be tired), we (to stop) working. 9. As soon as I (to get) any news about him, I (to tell) you about it. 10. Before he (to begin) to read a book, he (to look through) it. 11. I (to look after) my sister till the mother (to return). 12. John (to let) us know as soon as he (to pass) all his exams.

**Exercise 4. Use the verbs in brackets in the Present Continuous Tense.**

1. Look! It (begin) to rain. 2. They (wait) for us on the corner now. 3. I see that you (wear) your new suit today. 4. Listen! Someone (knock) at the door. 5. Please! Be quiet! The baby (sleep). 6. The leaves (fall) from the trees. 7. John (have) lunch in the cafeteria now. 8. Listen! I think the telephone (ring). 9. Ann seems to be very busy. I guess she (prepare) her English. 10. I (clean) the blackboard. 11. The boys (skate). 12. The student (stand) at the door.

**Exercise 5. Replace the infinitive in brackets by the Present**



### **Simple or the Present Continuous Tense.**

1. We (to gather) mushrooms in summer. 2. The children are in the forest now. They (to gather) mushrooms. 3. Where is Kate? She (to do) her homework. She always (to do) her homework in the evening. 4. The pupils (to write) compositions once a month. 5. Don't shout. The pupils of the ninth form (to write) compositions. 6. Water (to boil) at 100°. 7. Turn off the gas. The milk (to boil) .8. Mary (to dance) all modern dances very well. 9. Look! Peter (to dance) with Jane. 10. Helen usually gets up late. She always (to hurry) to school. 11. Where you (to hurry)? 12. As a rule Paul (to prepare) his report in time. 13. Don't disturb him. He (to prepare) for his examination. 14. Take along your umbrella. It (to rain) 15. It often (to rain) in England.

### **Exercise 6. Use the verbs in brackets in the Future Continuous Tense.**

1. At ten o'clock tomorrow morning she (have) her music lesson. 2. I (wait) on the corner for you at the usual time tomorrow morning. 3. It probably (rain) when you get back. 4. If you come before six, I (work) in my garden. 5. At this time tomorrow afternoon I (take) my final English exam. 6. If we go there now, they (have) dinner. But if we go later, they (watch) television. 7. At this time next year he (study) at the University. 8. Don't come to see him tonight, he (to pack) things. 9. I (to travel) the whole

summer.

## **Unit 4.**

### **MEMORY**

#### **Quiz**

*What is Memory?*

*Have you ever wondered how you manage to remember information for a test?*

*Exercise 1.*

*Read the text below:*

#### **Text A. Memory**

The ability to create new memories, store them for periods of time and recall them when they are needed allows us to learn and interact with the world around us. The study of human memory has been a subject of science and philosophy for thousands of years and has become one of the major topics of interest within cognitive psychology. But what exactly is memory? How are memories formed?

Memory refers to the processes that are used to acquire, store, retain and later retrieve information. There are three major processes involved in memory: encoding, storage and retrieval.

In order to form new memories, information must be changed into a usable form, which occurs through the process known as

encoding. Once information has been successfully encoded, it must be stored in memory for later use. Much of this stored memory lies outside of our awareness most of the time, except when we actually need to use it. The retrieval process allows us to bring stored memories into conscious awareness.

### **The Stage Model of Memory**

While several different models of memory have been proposed, the stage model of memory is often used to explain the basic structure and function of memory. Initially proposed in 1968 by Atkinson and Shiffrin, this theory outlines three separate stages of memory: sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory.

**Sensory memory** is the earliest stage of memory. During this stage, sensory information from the environment is stored for a very brief period of time, generally for no longer than a half-second for visual information and 3 or 4 seconds for auditory information. We attend to only certain aspects of this sensory memory, allowing some of this information to pass into the next stage – short-term memory.

**Short-term memory**, also known as active memory, is the information we are currently aware of or thinking about. In Freudian psychology, this memory would be referred to as the conscious mind. Paying attention to sensory memories generates

the information in short-term memory. Most of the information stored in active memory will be kept for approximately 20 to 30 seconds. While many of our short-term memories are quickly forgotten, attending to this information allows it to continue on the next stage – long-term memory.

**Long-term memory** refers to the continuing storage of information. In Freudian psychology, long-term memory would be called the preconscious and unconscious. This information is largely outside of our awareness but can be called into working memory to be used when needed. Some of this information is fairly easy to recall, while other memories are much more difficult to access.

### **The Organization of Memory**

The ability to access and retrieve information from long-term memory allows us to actually use these memories to make decisions, interact with others and solve problems. But how is information organized in memory? The specific way information is organized in long-term memory is not well understood, but researchers do know that these memories are arranged in groups. Clustering is used to organize related information into groups. Information that is categorized becomes easier to remember and recall. For example, consider the following group of words: Desk, apple, bookshelf, red, plum, table, green, pineapple, purple, chair,

peach, yellow. Spend a few seconds reading them, then look away and try to recall and list these words. How did you group the words when you listed them? Most people will list using three different categories: colour, furniture and fruit.

One way of thinking about memory organization is known as the semantic network model. This model suggests that certain triggers activate associated memories. A memory of a specific place might activate memories about related things that have occurred in that location. For example, thinking about a particular campus building might trigger memories of attending classes, studying and socializing with peers.

***Exercise 2.***

*Answer the following question:*

***What do these words (sensory memory, short-term memory, long-term memory) mean?***

***Exercise 3.***

*Read and retell the text below:*

**Text B. Explanations for Forgetting. Reasons Why We Forget.**

***What are some of the major reasons why we forget information?***

One of today's best-known memory researchers, Elizabeth Loftus, has identified four major reasons why people forget: retrieval failure, interference, failure to store and motivated forgetting.

## **Retrieval Failure**

Have you ever felt like a piece of information has just vanished from memory? Or maybe you know that it's there, you just can't seem to find it. The inability to retrieve a memory is one of the most common causes of forgetting.

So why are we often unable to retrieve information from memory? One possible explanation of retrieval failure is known as decay theory. According to this theory, a memory trace is created every time. Decay theory suggests that over time, these memory traces begin to fade and disappear. If information is not retrieved and rehearsed, it will eventually be lost.

One problem with this theory, however, is that research has demonstrated that even memories which have not been rehearsed or remembered are remarkably stable in long-term memory.

## **Interference**

Another theory known as interference theory suggests that some memories compete and interfere with other memories. When information is very similar to other information that was previously stored in memory, interference is more likely to occur. There are two basic types of interference:

Proactive interference is when an old memory makes it more difficult or impossible to remember a new memory.

Retroactive interference occurs when new information interferes with your ability to remember previously learned information.

### **Failure to Store**

Sometimes, losing information has less to do with forgetting and more to do with the fact that it never made it into long-term memory in the first place. Encoding failures sometimes prevent information from entering long-term memory.

In one well-known experiment, researchers asked participants to identify the correct U.S. penny out of a group of incorrect pennies (Nickerson & Adams). Try doing this experiment yourself by attempting to draw a penny from memory, and then compare your results to an actual penny.

How well did you do? Chances are that you were able to remember the shape and colour, but you probably forgot other minor details. The reason for this is that only details necessary for distinguishing pennies from other coins were encoded into your long-term memory.

### **Motivated Forgetting**

Sometimes, we may actively work to forget memories, especially those of traumatic or disturbing events or experiences. The two basic forms of motivated forgetting are suppression, a conscious form of forgetting, and repression, an unconscious form of forgetting.

However, the concept of repressed memories is not universally accepted by all psychologists. One of the problems with repressed memories is that it is difficult, if not impossible, to scientifically study whether or not a memory has been repressed. Also note that mental activities such as rehearsal and remembering are important ways of strengthening memory, and memories of painful or traumatic life events are far less likely to be remembered, discussed or rehearsed.

***Exercise 4.***

*Answer the following question*

***What are some of the major reasons why we forget information?***

***Exercise 5.***

*Read and translate the text below:*

**Text C. Top 10 Memory Improvement Tips**

Before you study for your next exam, you might want to use a few strategies to boost your memory of important information. There are a number of tried and tested techniques for improving memory. These strategies have been established within cognitive psychology literature and offer a number of great ways to improve memory, enhance recall and increase retention of information.

**1. Focus your attention on the materials you are studying.**



Attention is one of the major components of memory. In order for information to move from short-term memory into long-term memory, you need to actively attend to this information. Try to study in a place free of distractions such as television, music and other diversions.

## **2. Avoid cramming by establishing regular study sessions.**

According to Bjork (2001), studying materials over a number of sessions gives you the time you need to adequately process the information. Research has shown that students who study regularly remember the material far better than those who did all of their studying in one marathon session.

## **3. Structure and organize the information you are studying.**

Researchers have found that information is organized in memory in related clusters. You can take advantage of this by structuring and organizing the materials you are studying. Try grouping similar concepts and terms together, or make an outline of your notes and textbook readings to help group related concepts.

## **4. Utilize mnemonic devices to remember information.**

Mnemonic devices are a technique often used by students to aid in recall. A mnemonic is simply a way to remember information. For example, you might associate a term you need to remember with a common item that you are very familiar with. The best mnemonics are those that utilize positive imagery, humour or

novelty. You might come up with a rhyme, song or joke to help remember a specific segment of information.

### **5. Elaborate and rehearse the information you are studying.**

In order to recall information, you need to encode what you are studying into long-term memory. One of the most effective encoding techniques is known as elaborative rehearsal. An example of this technique would be to read the definition of a key term, study the definition of that term and then read a more detailed description of what that term means. After repeating this process a few times, your recall of the information will be far better.

### **6. Relate new information to things you already know.**

When you are studying unfamiliar material, take the time to think about how this information relates to things that you already know. By establishing relationships between new ideas and previously existing memories, you can dramatically increase the likelihood of recalling the recently learned information.

### **7. Visualize concepts to improve memory and recall.**

Many people benefit greatly from visualizing the information they study. Pay attention to the photographs, charts and other graphics in your textbooks. If you do not have visual cues to help, try creating your own. Draw charts or figures in the margins of your

notes or use highlighters or pens in different colours to group related ideas in your written study materials.

### **8. Teach new concepts to another person.**

Research suggests that reading materials out loud significantly improves memory of the material. Educators and psychologists have also discovered that having students actually teach new concepts to others enhances understanding and recall. You can use this approach in your own studies by teaching new concepts and information to a friend or study partner.

### **9. Pay extra attention to difficult information.**

Have you ever noticed how it's sometimes easier to remember information at the beginning or end of a chapter? Researchers have found that the order of information can play a role in recall, which is known as the serial position effect. While recalling middle information can be difficult, you can overcome this problem by spending extra time rehearsing this information. Another strategy is to try restructuring the information so it will be easier to remember. When you come across an especially difficult concept, devote some extra time to memorizing the information.

### **10. Vary your study routine.**

Another great way to increase your recall is to occasionally change your study routine. If you are accustomed to studying in one specific location, try moving to a different spot during your next

study session. If you study in the evening, try spending a few minutes each morning reviewing the information you studied the previous night. By adding an element of novelty to your study sessions, you can increase the effectiveness of your efforts and significantly improve your long-term recall.

### **Facts About Memory**

While it may seem like studying and rehearsing information is the best way to ensure that you will remember it, researchers have found that being tested on information is actually one of the best ways to improve recall.

One experiment found that students who studied and were then tested had better long-term recall of the materials, even on information that was not covered by the tests. Students who had extra time to study but were not tested had significantly lower recall of the materials.

Depictions of Amnesia in Movies Are Usually Inaccurate.

**Amnesia** is a common plot device in the movies, but these depictions are often inaccurate. For example, how often have you seen a fictional character lose their memory due to a bump on the head only to have their memories magically restored after suffering a second knock to the skull?

There are two different types of amnesia.

**Anterograde amnesia:** Involves the loss of the ability to form new memories.

**Retrograde amnesia:** Involves losing the ability to recollect past memories, although the ability to create new memories may remain intact.

While most movie depictions of amnesia involve retrograde amnesia, anterograde amnesia is actually far more common. The most famous case of anterograde amnesia was a patient known in the literature as H.M. In 1953, he had brain surgery to help stop the seizures caused by his severe epilepsy. The surgery involved the removal of both hippocampi, the regions of the brain strongly associated with memory. As a result, H.M. was no longer able to form any new long-term memories.

Popular movies and television programs tend to depict such memory loss as fairly common, but true cases of complete amnesia about one's past and identity are actually quite rare.

Some of the most common causes of amnesia include:

**Trauma:** A physical trauma, such as a car accident, can cause the victim to lose specific memories of the event itself. Emotional trauma, such as being a victim of childhood sexual abuse, can cause the individual to lose memories of specific situations.

Drugs: Certain medications can be used to cause temporary amnesia, particularly during medical procedures. Once the drugs wear off, the individual's memory returns to normal functioning.

### **A Good Night's Sleep May Improve Your Memory.**

You have probably heard about many of the reasons to get a good night's sleep. Since the 1960s, researchers have noted the important connection between sleep and memory. In one classic experiment conducted in 1994, researchers found that depriving participants of sleep impaired their ability to improve performance on a line identification task.

In addition to aiding in memory, sleep also plays an essential role in learning new information. In one study, researchers found that depriving students of sleep after learning a new skill significantly decreased memory of that skill up to three days later.

Researchers have found, however, that sleep's influence on procedural memory is much stronger than it is for declarative memory. Procedural memories are those that involve motor and perceptual skills, while declarative memories are those that involve the memorization of facts.

"If you're going to be tested on 72 irregular French verbs tomorrow, you might as well stay up late and cram", explained Robert Stickgold, a psychiatry professor at Harvard Medical School, in an article published in the APA's Monitor on

Psychology. “But if they’re going to throw a curveball at you and ask you to explain the differences between the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution, you’re better off having gotten some sleep”.

***Exercise 6.***

*Answer the following questions*

***What does amnesia mean?***

***What techniques do you use to improve your memory?***

***Exercise 7.***

*Topics for composition and discussion.*

***Models of memory. What are they?***

***Memory Improvement Tips.***

## **GRAMMAR EXERCISES**

### **Exercise 1. Change the following into the Past Continuous Tense.**

1. The man is standing near the door. 2. Tom told a story.  
3. The children swam in the river. 4. Is Mary wearing a white dress?  
5. She went to the cinema. 6. They didn’t work in the garden.  
7. We are not sitting by the window. 8. The workers built a bridge.  
9. The girl tried on a dress. 10. The old man spoke in a low voice.

### **Exercise 2. Put questions to the italicized words.**

1. The man *was reading a magazine* when somebody knocked at the door. 2. He was waiting *for a bus*. 3. *My brother* was skating. 4. The students were dancing *when I opened the door*. 5. The girl was eating *ice cream* when we came in. 6. She was looking *after her little brother*. 7. The pupils were discussing *a story*. 8. The man was passing the theatre *when the clock struck ten*. 9. It was snowing *when we went out*. 10. The boy was running *very fast*.

**Exercise 3. Use the verbs in brackets in the Past Continuous or the Past Simple Tense.**

1. I (to go) to the cinema yesterday. 2. I (to go) to the cinema at four o'clock yesterday. 3. My brother (not to play) tennis yesterday. He (to play) tennis the day before yesterday. 4. My sister (not to play) the piano at four o'clock yesterday. She (to play) the piano the whole evening. 5. When I came into the kitchen, mother (to cook). 6. She (to cook) fish yesterday. 7. You (to do) your homework yesterday? 8. You (to do) your homework from eight till ten yesterday? 9. Why she (to sleep) at seven o'clock yesterday? 10. What Nick (to do) when you came to his place? 11. What he (to do) yesterday? – He (to read) a book. 12. What he (to do) the whole evening yesterday? – He (to read) a book.

**Exercise 4. Open the brackets using the verbs in Present**



### **Perfect.**

1. I (to speak) to him about it several times. 2. We (to learn) many new words in this course. 3. He (to make) the same mistake several times. 4. I (to hear) that story before. 5. I am afraid that I (to lose) my car keys. 6. She (to see) the film several times. 7. I (to tell) John what you said. 8. She (to return) my book at last. 9. She says that she (to translate) the text already.

### **Exercise 5. Open the brackets using the verbs in Present Perfect or Past Simple Tense.**

1. I (not yet to eat) today. 2. He (not to eat) yesterday. 3. You (to play) the piano yesterday? 4. You (to play) the piano today? 5. What you (to prepare) for today? 6. Look at this birdhouse. Mike (to make) it himself. 7. When you (to see) Mary? - I (to see) her last week. 8. At last I (to translate) the article: now I shall have a little rest. 9. We (to go) to the country yesterday, but the rain (to spoil) all the pleasure. 10. The lecture (not yet to begin) and the students are talking in the classroom.

### **Exercise 6. Translate into English.**

1. Я залишив свій зошит вдома. 2. Де Петро? — Він ще не прийшов. 3. Що ти робиш? — Читаю англійське оповідання. Скільки сторінок ти вже прочитав? — Я прочитав уже сім сторінок. 4. Скільки нових слів ви вивчили в цьому місяці? 5. Я не можу їхати з тобою. Я ще не склав

екзамену згеометрії. 6. Ми щойно прочитали телеграму. 7. Ми одержали телеграмувчора. 8. Я знаю цього лікаря з 2010 року. 9. Чому в тій кімнаті темно? — Я вимкнув світло. 10. Ми не бачили його вже три роки. 11. У мене немає ручки,я її загубив. — Коли ти загубив її? 12. Де учні? — Вони у садку. Вони там уже дві години. 13. Минулого року ми їздили до Варшави на екскурсію. З того часу я не був у Варшаві. 14. Нарешті ми закінчили роботу. Тепер ми можемо відпочити. 15. Ми бачили її вчора. Вона працювала у садку. 16. Коли годинник пробивдванадцять, ми всі сиділи за столом. 17. Де ти був о третій годині? Я дзвонив тобі, але ніхто не відповів. — Я ремонтував велосипед. 18. Коли я зайшов до залу, Ольга грала на скрипці. 19. Що вона робила, коли ви прийшли до неї? — Вона прибирала в кімнаті. 20. Коли я вийшов з дому, ішов сильний дощ. 21. Щоробив учитель, поки ви писали твір? 22. Що робив ваш син о десятій годині вечора? — Читав якусь книжку.

## Unit 5

### PERCEPTION

#### Quiz

*What is Perception?*

*How do Colours Impact Moods, Feelings, and Behaviours?*

*Exercise 1.*

*Read the text below:*

### **Text A. Colour Psychology**

Do you feel anxious in a yellow room? Does the colour blue make you feel calm and relaxed? Artists and interior designers have long understood how colour can dramatically affect moods, feelings and emotions. It is a powerful communication tool and can be used to signal action, influence mood and cause physiological reactions. Certain colours can raise blood pressure, increase metabolism or cause eyestrain.

Of course, your feelings about colour can also be deeply personal and are often rooted in your own experience or culture. For example, while the colour white is used in many Western countries to represent purity and innocence, it is seen as a symbol of mourning in many Eastern countries.

Explore the history of colour including how it's used, the effects it may have and some of the most recent research on colour psychology.

#### **What Is Colour?**

In 1666, English scientist Sir Isaac Newton discovered that when pure white light passes through a prism, it separates into all of the visible colours. Newton also found that each colour is made up of a single wavelength and cannot be separated any further into other colours.

Further experiments demonstrated that light could be combined to form other colours. For example, red light mixed with yellow light creates an orange colour. Some colours, such as yellow and purple, cancel each other out when mixed and result in a white light.

If you have ever painted, you have probably noticed how certain colours can be mixed to create other colours.

### **Colour Psychology – The Psychological Effects of Colour.**

While perceptions of colour are somewhat subjective, there are some colour effects that have universal meaning. Colours in the red area of the colour spectrum are known as warm colours and include red, orange and yellow. These warm colours evoke emotions ranging from feelings of warmth and comfort to feelings of anger and hostility.

Colours on the blue side of the spectrum are known as cool colours and include blue, purple and green. These colours are often described as calm, but can also call to mind feelings of sadness or indifference.

### **Colour Psychology as Therapy.**

Several ancient cultures, including the Egyptians and Chinese, practiced chromotherapy, or using colours to heal. Chromotherapy is sometimes referred to as light therapy or colourology and is still used today as a holistic or alternative treatment.

In this treatment:

Red was used to stimulate the body and mind and to increase circulation.

Yellow was thought to stimulate the nerves and purify the body.

Orange was used to heal the lungs and to increase energy levels.

Blue was believed to soothe illnesses and treat pain.

Indigo shades were thought to alleviate skin problems.

Most psychologists view colour therapy with scepticism and point out that the supposed effects of colour have been exaggerated.

Colours also have different meanings in different cultures.

Research has demonstrated in many cases that the mood-altering effects of colour may only be temporary. A blue room may initially cause feelings of calm, but the effect dissipates after a short period of time.

Studies have also shown that certain colours can have an impact on performance. Exposing students to the colour red prior to an exam has been shown to have a negative impact on test performance. More recently, researchers discovered that the colour red causes people to react with greater speed and force, something that might prove useful during athletic activities.

### Exercise 2.

*Answer the following question*

***How do Colours Impact Moods, Feelings, and Behaviours?***

### Exercise 3.

*Read and retell the text below:*

#### **Text B. The Colour Psychology of Black.**

Black absorbs all light in the colour spectrum. Black is often used as a symbol of menace or evil, but it is also popular as an indicator of power. It is used to represent treacherous characters such as Dracula and is often associated with witchcraft. Black is associated with death and mourning in many cultures. It is also associated with unhappiness, sexuality, formality, and sophistication.

In ancient Egypt, black represented life and rebirth.

Black is often used in fashion because of its slimming quality. Consider how black is used in language: Black Death, blackout, black cat, black list, black market, black tie, black belt.

#### **The Colour Psychology of White.**

White represents purity or innocence. White is bright and can create a sense of space or add highlights.

White is also described as cold, bland, and sterile. Rooms painted completely white can seem spacious, but empty and unfriendly. Hospitals and hospital workers use white to create a sense of sterility.

#### **Red**

Red is a bright, warm colour that evokes strong emotions. Red is associated with love, warmth, and comfort. Red is also considered an intense, or even angry, colour that creates feelings of excitement or intensity.

Consider how red is used in language: redneck, red-hot, red-handed, paint the town red, seeing red

### **The Colour Psychology of Blue**

Blue is described as a favourite colour by many people and is the colour most preferred by men. Blue calls to mind feelings of calmness or serenity. It is often described as peaceful, tranquil, secure, and orderly. Blue can also create feelings of sadness or aloofness. Blue is often used to decorate offices because research has shown that people are more productive in blue rooms.

Blue is one of the most popular colours, but it is one of the least appetizing. Some weight loss plans even recommend eating your food off of a blue plate. Blue rarely occurs naturally in food aside from blueberries and some plums. Also, humans are geared to avoid foods that are poisonous and blue colouring in food is often a sign of spoilage or poison.

Blue can also lower the pulse rate and body temperature. Consider how blue is used in language: blue moon, blue Monday, blue blood, the blues, and blue ribbon.

## **The Colour Psychology of Green**

Green is a cool colour that symbolizes nature and the natural world. Green also represents tranquillity, good luck, health, and jealousy. Researchers have also found that green can improve reading ability. Some students may find that laying a transparent sheet of green paper over reading material increases reading speed and comprehension.

Green has long been a symbol of fertility and was once the preferred colour choice for wedding gowns in the 15<sup>th</sup> century. Even today, green M & M's (an American chocolate candy) are said to send a sexual message.

Green is often used in decorating for its calming effect. For example, guests waiting to appear on television programs often wait in a “green room” to relax.

Green is thought to relieve stress and help heal. Those who have a green work environment experience fewer stomach ache. Consider how green is used in language: green thumb, green with envy, greenhorn.

## **The Colour Psychology of Yellow**

Yellow is a bright that is often described as cheery and warm. Yellow is also the most fatiguing to the eye due to the high amount of light that is reflected. Using yellow as a background on



paper or computer monitors can lead to eyestrain or vision loss in extreme cases.

Yellow can also create feelings of frustration and anger. While it is considered a cheerful colour, people are more likely to lose their tempers in yellow rooms and babies tend to cry more in yellow rooms. Yellow can also increase the metabolism.

Since yellow is the most visible colour, it is also the most attention-getting colour. Yellow can be used in small amounts to drawing notice, such as on traffic signs or advertisements.

### **The Colour Psychology of Purple**

Purple is a symbol of royalty and wealth. Purple also represents wisdom and spirituality. Purple does not often occur in nature, it can sometimes appear exotic or artificial.

### **Colour Psychology – Reactions to Brown**

Brown is a natural colour that evokes a sense of strength and reliability. Brown can also create feelings of sadness and isolation.

Brown brings to mind feelings of warmth, comfort, and security. It is often described as natural, down-to-earth, and conventional, but brown can also be sophisticated.

### **The Colour Psychology of Orange**

Orange is a combination of yellow and red and is considered an energetic colour. Orange calls to mind feelings of excitement,

enthusiasm, and warmth. Orange is often used to draw attention, such as in traffic signs and advertising.

### **The Colour Psychology of Pink**

Pink is essentially a light red and is usually associated with love and romance. Pink is thought to have a calming effect. One shade was known as “drunk-tank pink“ is sometimes used in prisons to calm inmates. Sports teams sometimes paint the opposing teams’ locker room pink to keep the players passive and less energetic.

While pink’s calming effect has been demonstrated, researchers of colour psychology have found that this effect only occurs during the initial exposure to the colour. When used in prisons, inmates often become even more agitated once they become accustomed to the colour.

#### ***Exercise 4.***

*Answer the following question*

***Why is colour such a powerful force in our lives?***

***What effects can it have on our bodies and minds?***

#### ***Exercise 5.***

*Read and translate the text below:*

### **Text C. Perception**

The perceptual process allows us to experience the world around us. Take a moment to think of all the things you perceive on

a daily basis. At any given moment, you might see familiar objects in your environment, feel the touch of objects and people against your skin, smell the aroma of a home-cooked meal and hear the sound of music playing in your next door. neighbour's apartment. All of these things help make up our conscious experience and allow us to interact with the people and objects around us.

Perception is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

**Perception includes the five senses; touch, sight, hearing, smell and taste.** It also includes what is known as proprioception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar scent.

#### The Perceptual Process

The perceptual process is a sequence of steps that begins with the environment and leads to our perception of a stimulus and an action in response to the stimulus. This process is continual, but

you do not spend a great deal of time thinking about the actual process that occurs when you perceive the many stimuli that surround you at any given moment.

The process of transforming the light that falls on your retinas into an actual visual image happens unconsciously and automatically.

The subtle changes in pressure against your skin that allow you to feel object occur without a single thought.

In order to fully understand how the perception process works, we'll start by breaking down each step.

### The Steps in the Perceptual Process

1. The Environmental Stimulus
2. The Attended Stimulus
3. The Image on the Retina
4. Transduction
5. Neural Processing
6. Perception
7. Recognition
8. Action

### **The Environmental Stimulus**

The world is full of stimuli that can attract our attention through various senses. The environmental stimulus is everything in our environment that has the potential to be perceived. This might include anything that can be seen, touched, tasted, smelled or

heard. It might also involve the sense of proprioception, such as the movements of the arms and legs or the change in position of the body in relation to objects in the environment.

### **The Attended Stimulus**

The attended stimulus is the specific object in the environment on which our attention is focused. In many cases, we might focus on stimuli that are familiar to us, such as the face of a friend in a crowd of strangers at the local coffee shop. In other instances, we are likely to attend to stimuli that have some degree of novelty.

### **The Image on the Retina**

Next, the attended stimulus is formed as an image on the retina. The first part of this process involves the light actually passing through the cornea and pupil and onto the lens of the eye. The cornea helps focus the light as it enters the eye, and the iris of the eye controls the size of the pupils in order to determine how much light to let in. The cornea and lens act together to project an inverted image on the retina.

### **Transduction**

The image on the retina is then transformed into electrical signals in a process known as transduction. This allows the visual messages to be transmitted to the brain to be interpreted.

Neural Processing

The electrical signals then undergo neural processing. The path followed by a particular signal depends on what type of signal it is (i.e., an auditory signal or a visual signal). Through the series of interconnected neurons located throughout the body, electrical signals are propagated from the receptors cells to the brain. In the next step of the perceptual process, you will actually perceive the stimuli and become aware of its presence in the environment.

### **Perception**

In the next step of the perception process, we actually perceive the stimulus object in the environment. It is at this point that we become consciously aware of the stimulus.

### **Recognition**

Perception doesn't just involve becoming consciously aware of the stimuli. It is also necessary for our brain to categorize and interpret what it is we are sensing. Our ability to interpret and give meaning to the object is the next step, known as recognition.

### **Action**

The final step of the perceptual process involves some sort of action in response to the environmental stimulus. This could involve a variety of actions, such as turning your head for a closer look or turning away to look at something else.

The action phase of perceptual development involves some type of motor action that occurs in response to the perceived and

recognized stimulus. This might involve a major action, like running toward a person in distress, or something as subtle as blinking your eyes in response to a puff of dust blowing through the air.

***Exercise 6.***

*Answer the following questions*

*How many steps are there in the perceptual process?*

*What are the main steps in the perceptual process?*

*What senses are included in perception?*

*Does perception involve cognitive processes?*

*What is transduction?*

*What are the main functions of perception?*

***Exercise 7.***

*Topics for composition and discussion.*

*Colour Psychology as Therapy.*

*Perception involve cognitive processes, doesn't it.*

## **GRAMMAR EXERCISES**

**Exercise 1. Open the brackets using the Present, Past, or Future Simple Passive.**

1. My question (to answer) yesterday. 2. Hockey (to play) in winter. 3. Mushrooms (to gather) in autumn. 4. Many houses (to burn) during the Great Fire of London. 5. His new book (to

finish) next year. 6. Flowers (to sell) in shops and in the streets. 7. Bread (to eat) every day. 8. The letter (to receive) yesterday. 9. I (to ask) at the lesson yesterday. 10. This work (to do) tomorrow. 11. These trees (to plant) last autumn. 12. Rome (not to build) in a day. 13. This text (to translate) at the next lesson. 14. Lost time never (to find) again. 15. Many houses (to build) in our town every year.

**Exercise 2. Choose the right verb-form from the brackets.**

1. At the station they will (meet, be met) by a man from the travel agency. 2. She will (meet, be met) them in the hall. 3. The porter will (bring, be brought) your luggage to your room. 4. Your luggage will (bring, be brought) up in the lift. 5. You may (leave, be left) your hat and coat in the cloak-room downstairs. 6. They can (leave, be left) the key with the clerk in the hall. 7. From the station they will (take, be taken) straight to the hotel. 8. Tomorrow he will (take, be taken) them to the museum.

**Exercise 3. Change the following into the Passive Voice.**

1. We often speak about her. 2. We sent for the doctor. 3. The children laughed at the little boy. 4. They look after the children. 5. The students listen to the professor with great interest. 6. People speak about this film very much. 7. The teacher sent for the pupil's parents. 8. We waited for the train for a long time. 9. The doctor will operate on him in a week. 10. We thought about



our friend all the time.

**Exercise 4. Open the brackets using Present Continuous or Past Continuous Passive and Present Perfect or Past Perfect Passive.**

1. My question (is being answered, was being answered) now. 2. The students (are being examined, were being examined) when the dean entered the class room. 3. The piano (is being played, was being played) the whole evening yesterday. 4. Don't come into the room! The results of the test (are being checked, were being checked) now. 5. The film (has been shown, had been shown). 6. The trees (have been planted, had been planted) by the time we came. 7. My pencil (has been broken, had been broken) by someone. 8. The composition (has been written, had been written) before the bell rang. 9. Water-power stations (are being built, were being built) on the mountain rivers. 10. This work (has been done, had been done) by Monday.

## **TEXTS FOR ADDITIONAL READING**

### **Text 1**

#### **Talking with the hands**

American Sign Language (ASL), the manual-visual language used by deaf people in the United States, is a full-fledged linguistic system in which the hands and arms communicate by means of location of hands, hand shape, movement and the orientation of the palm. There are about twenty-five locations, forty-five ways of shaping the hand, ten distinct movements and ten ways of orienting the palm. The signs of ASL may or may not have an exact English equivalent, but anything said in one language can be translated into the other. Speakers of ASL sometimes supplement their “speech” by finger spelling words, but finger spelling is used primarily for proper names, for borrowed words from English, or to “talk” with someone who is not fluent in ASL.

Signers can refer to other times and other places, and they can combine individual signs into an unlimited number of statements. At one time, linguists assumed that ASL was an incomplete language that lacked function words, but as more linguists fluent in the language, it became clear that function words and syntax are present, although not based on any English equivalent. One example is raised eyebrows to indicate a subordinate clause. Another example is the location of the hand in relation to the face

to indicate gender: the sign for “girl” is produced with the hand touching the cheek; the similar sign for “boy” is produced at the forehead. Other markers can change a sign from a verb to a noun, note whether an action is a single or a habitual occurrence, indicate plural, signify past or future, make clear that the sign is being used in a metaphorical sense, or indicate that the signer is coining a new term.

## **Text 2**

### **Language and non-humans**

At the university of Hawaii, several female bottle nosed dolphins have shown that they “understand” a variety of sentences conveyed through one of two languages. One is a visual language consisting of hand and arm signals, and the other is an acoustic language consisting of whistle like sounds. The dolphins first learned a small set of signals for simple actions, which the trainers taught them using shaping techniques with reinforcements of fish and the trainer’s approval. As they learned the set of actions, the dolphins also learned signs for categories of objects, such as balls, hoops, pipes and baskets. The objects in each category varied from day to day in colour, size and exact shape, so the dolphins were learning to recognize a variety of instances for each concept. The dolphins also learned modifiers as well as to reply “yes” or “no” by pressing the appropriate pane.

All commands were constructed from a simple phrase-structure grammar, which could be used to generate sentences up to five “words” long. These five-word sentences made possible a very large number of combinations of signs, so the researchers were able to train the dolphins on a subset of sentences and to test the dolphins’ understanding of sentences to which they had never been exposed. The dolphins showed evidence of an ability to respond correctly to novel sentences. For example, after a dolphin learned “Hoop fetch surfboard” (which told the dolphin to swim to the hoop and take it to the surfboard), it was able to understand “Hoop on surfboard” (which told it to get the hoop and put it on the surfboard). They usually carried out such actions quickly and without error, despite the presence of distraction objects and other dolphins moving about in the tank. Such findings demonstrate a grasp of syntax.

Clearly, attempts to teach language to non-humans, have produced some impressive results, revealing glimmers of the central characteristics of human language: expressiveness, productivity and displacement.

### **Text 3**

#### **Helping the deaf hear**

Efforts to bring sound into the silent world of the deaf once focused on amplifying the intensity of sounds. It was hoped that

causing an increase in the vibrations of hear cells would translate into increased stimulation of the auditory nerve. But some researchers have tackled the problem of deafness by bypassing the damaged or destroyed hear cells and transmitting electrical impulses directly to the nerve fibres. The result has been the cochlear implant, in which an array of electrodes is threaded into the cochlea and connected to a small receiver-stimulator implanted behind the ear. Sounds picked up by the receiver are processed by a pocket-sized computer, which, relying on the frequency theory of pitch, separates sound information into its components and applies them directly to specific points on the basilar membrane. The implant delivers information about tone, tempo, and intensity.

Profoundly deaf adults whose auditory systems still function beyond the cochlea seem most likely to benefit from these devices. After lengthy training, patients with implants find that they can detect most environmental sounds, such as a knock on the door, footsteps, running water, barking dogs, ringing telephones, whistling tea kettles, and crumpling paper. They can also hear environmental sounds that warn them of danger, such as a car horn or a shout. A substantial minority regain enough hearing to use the telephone, although the majority still cannot decipher the sounds

of human speech without reading lips. But even for these patients, lip-reading ability improves.

People who have been deaf from birth cannot use cochlear implants successfully, possibly because the structures in temporal cortex that usually process speech have been coopted for other functions in the congenitally deaf. Their best hope seems to be some kind of device based on the sense of touch. One such device is the “tickle belt”, developed by psychologists C. Sherman and B. Franklin. Small rectangular transducers that respond to various sound frequencies are mounted on a belt worn next to the skin. The transducers change sounds into brief bursts of electricity, which the wearer senses as vibrations. High frequencies are felt at one end of the belt and low frequencies at the other; a word is felt as a pattern of stimulation moving across the belt. Of course, this sort of device requires the wearer to associate speech sounds with tactile sensations, which entails a great deal of training.

#### **Text 4**

##### **What is emotion?**

It is difficult to define an emotion, in part because our emotional experience is so varied and complex. There are hundreds of emotion words in the English language, from “abashed” to “xenophobia”. Do all these terms mean that there are actually hundreds of emotions?

Psychologists have tried to sort out this profusion of emotion terms by identifying a few underlying dimensions of emotional experience. Virtually all accounts of emotion agree that emotions can be classified along two broad dimensions – degree of pleasantness and degree of physical excitement. Some emotions such as fear – are clearly negative or unpleasant, and others – such as joy – are just as clearly positive or pleasant. Some emotions – such as anger and joy – involve high levels of activity, excitement or physiological arousal, whereas others – such as sadness – involve decreased energy and low levels of arousal.

Although researchers agree that pleasantness and arousal are two important dimensions of the emotional experience, they have not agreed about other dimensions. Yet it is clear that emotions are more complex than a two – dimensional model suggests. Consider, for example, anger and fear. Both of these emotions are negative and both are high arousal, yet they are quite distinct emotional experiences.

Another way to make sense of the variety of emotion terms is to identify which emotions are basic, in the sense that they share some kind of underlying biological foundation or are universal, and which are subordinate, or variations on the basic emotions. The majority of emotion researchers agree that the list of basic emotions is limited to five or six: the positive emotions of love,

joy and possibly, surprise; and the negative emotions of anger, fear and sadness. These emotions appear in most scientific theories of emotions, and they also seem to organize the way all people talk and think about emotions. Yet even here, there is some disagreement. Some researchers consider disgust a basic negative emotion; some think surprise is a reflex rather than an emotion; and others strike love from the list.

Given this lack of agreement and the complexity of the issue, how are we to define emotion? We can say that an emotion is a pattern of responses to an event that is relevant to the goals and needs of the organism. The responses include physiological arousal, impulses to action, thoughts and expression of all these. According to this definition, individuals who do not have needs, goals, or concerns cannot experience emotions. The needs or goals may be as fundamental as food, shelter and survival, or they may be as complex as the yearning for love, an ambition to win a Nobel prize, or a will to build self-respect.

Each component of an emotion plays an important role in our subjective experience of it.

## **Text 5**

### **The evolutionary theory of emotional expression**

Charles Darwin asserted that many human patterns of emotional expression have a genetic basis, handed down through generations



because they had survival value. Since there are not fossils of behaviour, such conjectures obviously cannot be proved, but the possible evolutionary significance of some expressions is easy to see. Raising the eyebrows in surprise or fear increases our visual acuity; raising the upper lip in rage bares teeth and readies us to bite. Other animals also bare their teeth as a threat or when preparing to fight, giving their enemies a warning that may in itself prevent a violent and damaging encounter. Darwin believed that baring the teeth served a similar function among our ancestors; the expression communicated a threat. A threat warns enemies of the impulse to act – in this case, to fight. What could be the purpose of visible fear? Researchers believe that a threatened animal's companions, preparing them as well as the threatened individual to flee if necessary.

If the expression of emotion has an evolutionary, genetic basis, then it should be similar across a variety of cultures. Consistent with Darwin's view, people from widely diverse cultures use highly similar postures, gestures and facial expressions to convey comparable emotional states. When people in different societies were asked to identify the emotions expressed in a series of photographs, they recognized anger, fear, disgust, surprise and happiness, regardless of the culture in which they lived.

Further evidence for a biological, hereditary basis of emotional expression comes from studies of infants, which show that the capacity for emotional expression develops very early – or is present at birth. In one study, infants as young as two months were observed during inoculations against childhood diseases. The infants all showed distinctive facial patterns that could be readily recognized as responses to pain. Some researchers believe that all the basic emotions may be present in the newborn, but they appear only in response to biological needs like food and protection. Although the first truly social smile appears at about two months, some researchers have found that infants as young as forty-two minutes will imitate emotional expressions quite accurately, sticking out their tongues or opening their mouths in response to an adults' actions. Whether these responses are true imitations has been much debated. Nevertheless, that basic emotional expressions have been observed repeatedly on the faces of infant certainly suggests that emotional expression is not the result of learning.

### **Text 6**

#### **How our emotions can make**

People lie for any number of reasons – to avoid getting into trouble for their actions, to avoid hurting another person's feelings, to

ingratiate themselves with someone they want to impress. Who can lie successfully – and when?

Apparently, most people can lie successfully when they don't care whether or not their lie is successful. But when the substance of the lie concerns their feelings, their true emotions often leak through and betray the falsehood. We express our emotions through several channels; verbal, visual and vocal. It is relatively easy to control the verbal aspects of our emotional expression, but the nonverbal aspects are likely to trip us up.

The more motivated we are to lie successfully, the less successful we may be, because clues to our deception in the nonverbal channels become more obvious. The more we care about lying successfully, the more emotion we experience – usually some form of fear. We may fear that our lie will be detected, we may be liked and accepted; we may worry about hurting the other person unnecessarily. The more we care the harder we try to control our channels of expression. The visual and vocal channels are especially difficult to control, however, so the heightened motivation allows more clues to leak through these nonverbal channels.

This seemed to describe the difficulty college students had when trying to lie for an experiment conducted by social psychologist Bella de Paulo. With the goal of making a favourable impression,

the students expressed opinions on controversial issues to another student. Motivation made all the difference. When the students' motivation to lie successfully was low (when the other person was the same gender or was unattractive, or when the disagreement was faked), they generally came across as sincere. But when students were highly motivated to lie successfully (when the other person was of the other gender or was highly attractive, or when the disagreement was real), their lies became relatively easy to detect. It was not their words that gave them away. When the other student had only a typed transcript of their remarks, he or she was unable to detect the falsehood. But when nonverbal channels were available the students were generally perceived as insincere.

A gender difference appeared unexpectedly among the findings: women were generally less successful liars than men. In fact, the men seemed nearly as sincere when lying as they did when telling the truth. Women's lies were easier to catch, especially when the lie was shown on a soundless videotape – which presented only nonverbal, visual information.

It's not clear why women should find it so difficult to lie successfully, but there are two possible explanations. First, women are generally better than men at expressing emotions with their tone of voice, their facial expressions and their body language. They may spontaneously express what they feel more

plainly than men do and as a result may be at a loss when trying to disguise their emotions. Second, women may have a stronger motive to gain the approval of others. Our emotions are elicited by our appraisals of events in relation to our motives and values, or underlying concerns, so these concerns direct our emotional experiences to some degree. Accordingly, if women's underlying concerns are primarily interpersonal, their desire for approval increases their motivation to lie, and to lie successfully – which heightens their emotion to the point where it can no longer be disguised.

### **Text 7**

#### **A triangular theory of love**

According to psychologist Robert Sternberg, love varies from one relationship to another because its mix of components differ. Sternberg suggests that love has three possible components: intimacy, passion and commitment. In his theory, intimacy is the emotional component of love. It refers to feeling close and bound together by mutual affection. Passion is love's motivational component. It is the drive that leads to romance, physical attraction, and sexual consummation. Finally, there is commitment, the cognitive component of love. It refers to the decision to label a certain relationship "love" and to seek to maintain that relationship over time.

Different types of love, Sternberg claims, have different amounts of these three components. Liking consists of intimacy without passion or commitment. Infatuation, or love at first sight, is passion alone, in the absence of commitment or intimacy. When a person is committed to a relationship that lacks both intimacy and passion, the result is empty love. Romantic love is intimacy and passion combined, without much commitment (though commitment may come later). When passion is absent but intimacy and commitment are present, we have what is called companionate love, the kind of love that sometimes occurs after many years of marriage. Passion and commitment without intimacy produced fatuous love, the type that is found in a marriage that follows a whirlwind courtship. The parents have a strong sexual attraction and have decided to share their lives, but they have not yet developed much knowledge of each other or deep feelings of emotional closeness. What Sternberg refers to as consummate love is the richest of all; it consists of all three components – intimacy, passion and commitment.

One strength of Sternberg's theory is that, in identifying love's structure (its components), it can account for love's many variations. Another strength is that the theory can deal with love as a process, as something that changes over time. It allows us to describe change in terms of shifts in the mix of love's three

components. In a marriage, for instance, the passion component may fade over the years, while intimacy and commitment remain strong. Fatuous love, characterized by passion and commitment, may gradually acquire intimacy and become consummate love. Sternberg's theory also has some limitations, the most basic of which is the fact that it is primarily descriptive. While it defines different types of love in terms of three components, it gives us no framework for understanding why these different types occur and who is most likely to experience each one.

## **Text 8**

### **Learning**

For most of us topic of learning brings to mind a classroom, whether elementary, high school, or college; lectures, biology labs; practice in long division or library research on the forest people of Africa. But learning encompasses far more than formal education. Indeed, it permeates every aspect of life, and not just human life at that. To a greater or lesser degree, all animals learn. Simple invertebrates live largely by genetically programmed reflexes, which prepare them to behave in given ways. But the more complex an organism, the less it depends on innate responses and the more it must rely on learning in order to adapt rapidly and appropriately to changing conditions. This means that the more capable of learning an organism is, the more adaptable it is and the

more environments it can inhabit – as with humans, who populate the globe.

No matter what area of psychology we consider, learning plays a central role. Learning even seems to have a physiological effect: for example, animals raised in enriched environments – which promote exploration – tend to have more synaptic connections in their brains and are prepared to learn more readily than others.

Outside the schoolroom or the lecture hall, we can find innumerable instances of learning going on. If you get a stomach ache after eating oysters for the first time, you probably will not particularly want to go near them again: you have “learned” by simple association that, oysters are linked with stomach ache.

An abused child learns that withdrawal or abuse of others is an acceptable way, or perhaps the only way, to deal with fear, anger, or frustration. All through life we observe other people at school, in offices, at parties, at theatres, or in street fights and take in how the society around us expects us to behave in those situations.

Psychology’s exploration of learning in both animals and humans has among other things, given us insights into daily life; has enhanced formal education in a number of ways, from computer-assisted learning to reward systems that motivate children to set goals in writing term papers; and has formed the basis of therapies that help to free people with phobias and their terrors.



Learning comes about through experience. Historically behaviourists and cognitive psychologists have answered this question differently. Behaviourists have thought of learning as changes in observable behaviour caused by environmental events. This goes along with behaviourism's central tenet: learning is to be characterized only in terms of the organism's history of external events and responses to those events; in this view, future behaviour, can be brought about by controlling the environmental events that produce the learning of that kind of behaviour.

Cognitive psychologists are more likely to describe learning in terms of changes in internal mental processes and knowledge. In this view, overt behaviour is the result of processes that include perceiving stimuli, retrieving appropriate knowledge, anticipating events, and behaving accordingly.

How can the learning be defined so that the different approaches can be accommodated, at least to some degree? It is said that learning refers to a long-lasting change in an organism's disposition to behave in certain ways as a result of experience. This definition excludes any changes caused by maturation or by temporary states like fatigue or illness.

In order to encompass the broad range of learning, psychologists have divided it into several types. There is habituation, a simple type of learning; associative learning, which includes the two

kinds of conditioning, classical and instrumental, and covers such diverse topics as punishment and skill learning; spatial learning, focusing on our understanding of the location of objects in space and our own orientation in the physical environment; and observational learning, an area that illustrates the coming together of the behavioural and cognitive points of view.

### **Text 9**

#### **Punishment: use with care**

Punishment, as we have seen, involves any unpleasant event (such as shock or denial of privileges) that follows a response and weakens it. If a rat receives a painful electric shock each time it presses a lever, it will soon stop pressing the lever. Life is full of aversive or painful consequences that serve as punishments: parents spank children, students get failing grades, lawbreakers are fined or jailed. Thus, both as individuals and as a society, we regard punishment as a useful means of controlling behaviour. Our environment provides many “natural” punishments that effectively suppress specific behaviour. A child has to touch a hot stove only once. After slipping and falling on an icy sidewalk, anyone walks more carefully.

Sometimes punishment involves denying or removing some pleasant or desired object or event. A small girl who misbehaves is not allowed to watch her favourite television program. Teachers

often use “time out” – placing an unruly child in temporary isolation to control disruptive behaviour. Misbehaving teenagers are “grounded” by their parents. Hockey players are sent to the penalty box for fighting.

Punishment can produce unwanted consequences. The association between punishment and a particular act can generalize, so that when the undesirable behaviour disappears, desirable behaviour also vanishes. For example, a child who is regularly and severely punished for aggression may stop fighting but may also become passive, giving up assertiveness along with aggression.

When punishment takes the form of harsh criticism, it can have very negative emotional consequences, lowering self-esteem and eroding any sense of competence. In addition, punishment may lead, by association, to intense dislike and to the avoidance of whoever administered the punishment as well as avoidance of the situation in which it occurred.

Although punishment clearly tells people what not to do, it gives no hint as to what they should do. It suppresses inappropriate behaviour without establishing an appropriate response in its place. For this reason, punishment is probably most effective when used in conjunction with positive reinforcement for a specific alternative behaviour. Such a combination effectively ended a retarded boy’s painful attacks on other children in an

institution. Each time Ricky bit another child, the staff made him wear a catcher's mask for 10 minutes. The mask made it impossible for him to bite. Because Ricky disliked the face mask, he soon stopped his attacks. The staff also began rewarding Ricky with attention and approval whenever he played constructively with others for a certain length of time without biting.

### **Text 10**

#### **Types of Social Workers**

Child, family, and school social workers provide social services and assistance to improve the social and psychological functioning of children and their families and to maximize the well-being of families and the academic functioning of children. They may assist single parents, arrange adoptions, or help find foster homes for neglected, abandoned, or abused children. Some specialize in services for senior citizens. These social workers may run support groups for the children of aging parents; advise elderly people or family members about housing, transportation, long-term care, and other services; and coordinate and monitor these services. Through employee assistance programs, social workers may help people cope with job-related pressures or with personal problems that affect the quality of their work.

In schools, social workers often serve as the link between students' families and the school, working with parents,

guardians, teachers, and other school officials to ensure students reach their academic and personal potential. In addition, they address problems such as misbehaviour, truancy, and teenage pregnancy and advise teachers on how to cope with difficult students. Increasingly, school social workers teach workshops to entire classes.

Child, family, and school social workers may also be known as child welfare social workers, family services social workers, child protective services social workers, occupational social workers, or gerontology social workers. They often work for individual and family services agencies, schools, or state or local governments.

Medical and public health social workers provide psychosocial support to people, families, or vulnerable populations so they can cope with chronic or terminal illnesses, such as Alzheimer's disease, cancer, or AIDS. They also advise family caregivers, counsel patients, and help plan for patients' needs after discharge from hospitals. They may arrange for at-home services, such as meals-on-wheels or home care. Some work on interdisciplinary teams that evaluate certain kinds of patients—geriatric or organ transplant patients, for example. Medical and public health social workers may work for hospitals, nursing and personal care facilities, individual and family services agencies, or local governments.

Mental health and substance abuse social workers assess and treat individuals with mental illness or substance abuse problems, including abuse of alcohol, tobacco, or other drugs. Such services include individual and group therapy, outreach, crisis intervention, social rehabilitation, and teaching skills needed for everyday living. They also may help plan for supportive services to ease clients' return to the community. Mental health and substance abuse social workers are likely to work in hospitals, substance abuse treatment centres, individual and family services agencies, or local governments. These social workers may be known as clinical social workers. Other types of social workers include social work administrators, planners and policymakers, who develop and implement programs to address issues such as child abuse, homelessness, substance abuse, poverty, and violence. These workers research and analyse policies, programs, and regulations. They identify social problems and suggest legislative and other solutions. They may help raise funds or write grants to support these programs.

## GRAMMAR REFERENCE

### Іменник (The Noun)

<b>-s</b>	a shop – shops; a day – days
<b>-es</b>	після “y” з попередньою приголосною, при цьому “y” змінюється на “i”: a country – countries
	після “o”: a tomato –tomatoes; але a piano – pianos; a photo – photos
	після –s, –ss, –ch, –sh, –tch, –x, –z: a box – boxes; a dress – dresses; a wish – wishes; a bench – benches
	після –f, –fe, при цьому –f, –fe змінюються на “v”: wife – wives; a life – lives; a shelf – shelves; a wolf – wolves; a thief – thieves; a calf –calves; a knife – knives; a half –halves; a leaf – leaves; a loaf – loaves. Усі інші іменники на –f, –fe по загальному правилу: a safe – safes; a roof – roofs

<b>Винятки</b>	a man – men, a woman – women, a foot – feet, a child – children, a tooth – teeth, an ox – oxen, a goose – geese, a mouse – mice
<b>Однина = множина</b>	a swine – swine, a sheep – sheep, a deer – deer
<b>Іменники грецького і латинського походження</b>	a curriculum – curricula; a datum – data; a phenomenon – phenomena; a basis – bases; a thesis – theses; a crisis – crises; a radius – radii; a nucleus – nuclei; a stimulus – stimuli; an index – indices
<b>Складові іменники</b>	a mother -in law – mothers-in-law; a fellow-worker – fellow-workers; a commander-in-chief – commanders-in-chief; a forget-me-not – forget-me-nots

## Відмінок (The case)

Однина	Множина
Tim's dog. Собака Тіма. St. Paul's cathedral. Собор Святого Павла.	The Bakers house. Будинок Бейкерів.

### Іменники (істоти) / (Animate Nouns)

a girl's hat – капелюх дівчинки a cat's tail – хвіст кішки	girls' hats – капелюхи дівчаток cats' tails – хвости кішок
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### Іменники (неістоти) / (Inanimal Nouns)

<b>що означають час і відстань</b>	
a minute's walk – хвилинна прогулянка a kilometre's distance – відстань в один кілометр	a five minutes' walk – п'ятихвилинна прогулянка a three kilometres' distance – відстань в три кілометри
<b>що означають назви країн, міст, суден</b>	
a Ukrainian's pupil – український учень Kyiv's square – площа Києва the "Taras Shevchenko's" crew – команда корабля "Тарас Шевченко"	
<b>збірні іменники</b>	
a company's office – офіс компанії the government's decision – постанова уряду the family's tradition – сімейна традиція	companies' offices – офіси компаній the governments' decisions – постанови урядів the families' traditions – сімейні традиції



## Прикметник (The Adjective)

Види прикметників	Основна форма	Вищий ступінь	Найвищий ступінь
• Односкладові	long big hot	longer bigger hotter	the longest the biggest the hottest
• Двоскладові прикметники, що закінчуються на <i>-y, -er, -le, -ow</i>	easy narrow simple	easier narrower simpler	the easiest the narrowest the simplest
• Двоскладові прикметники з наголосом на другому складі	concise polite severe	conciser politer severer	the concisest the politest the severest
• Багатоскладові прикметники	Beautiful  important	more beautiful more important	the most beautiful the most importans
• Виняток	good bad little much, more far (далекий)	better worse less more further, farther (більш далекий)	best worst least most furthest, farthest (самий далекий)

## Числівник (The Numeral)

<b>Дати</b>	May 9, 1945 – May the ninth (the ninth of May); nineteen forty-five; 1900 – nineteen hundred; 1905 – nineteen o (ou) five; 2000 – two thousand
<b>Дробові числівники</b>	$\frac{1}{2}$ – a (one) half, $\frac{1}{4}$ – a (one) quarter/fourth, $\frac{2}{3}$ – two thirds, 2 $\frac{3}{7}$ – two and three sevenths, 0.5 – (naught) point five, 3.751 – three point seven five one
<b>Номера телефонів, сторінок, глав тощо</b>	366038 – three double six o (ou) three eight 5446 – five four four six page twenty-five – сторінка двадцять п'ята part three – частина третя chapter six – глава шоста room ten – кімната десята size thirty-seven – розмір тридцять сьомий

## Займенник (The Pronoun)

<b>Особові</b>	<b>Називний відмінок</b>	<b>I</b>	<b>you</b>	<b>he</b>	<b>she</b>	<b>it</b>	<b>we</b>	<b>you</b>	<b>they</b>
	<b>Об'єктний відмінок</b>	<b>me</b>	<b>you</b>	<b>him</b>	<b>her</b>	<b>it</b>	<b>us</b>	<b>you</b>	<b>them</b>
<b>Присвій</b>	<b>Залежна форма</b>	<b>my</b>	<b>your</b>	<b>his</b>	<b>her</b>	<b>its</b>	<b>our</b>	<b>your</b>	<b>their</b>
	<b>Незалежна форма</b>	<b>mine</b>	<b>yours</b>	<b>his</b>	<b>hers</b>	<b>its</b>	<b>ours</b>	<b>yours</b>	<b>theirs</b>
<b>Зворотньо-ударні</b>		<b>My-self</b>	<b>your-self</b>	<b>him-self</b>	<b>her-self</b>	<b>It-self</b>	<b>our-selves</b>	<b>your-selves</b>	<b>them-selves</b>
<b>Взаснні</b>	each other, one another								
<b>Вказувальні</b>	this (these), that (those), such, the same								
<b>Питальні</b>	who, whom, whose, what, which								

<b>Відносні і з'єднувальні</b>	who, whom, whose, which, that
<b>Неозначені і заперечні</b>	some, any, one, ale, each, every, other, another, both, many, much, few, little, lither, no, none, neither

## Дієслово (The Verb)

### Дієвідміна дієслова *to be* в теперішньому часі

<i>Стверджувальна форма</i>		
<b>Особа</b>	<b>Число</b>	
	<i>Однина</i>	<i>Множина</i>
1-а	I am	we are
2-а	you are	you are
3-я	he she it <span style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</span> is	they are
<i>Питальна форма</i>		
1-а	am I?	are we?
2-а	are you?	are you?
3-я	is <span style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">{</span> he she it	are they?
<i>Заперечна форма</i>		
1-а	I am not	we are not
2-а	you are not	you are not
3-я	he she it <span style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</span> is not	they are not

## Дієвідміна дієслова *to have* в теперішньому часі

Особа	Число	
	<i>Однина</i>	<i>Множина</i>
1-а	I <b>have</b> a ball.	We have a ball.
1-а	You <b>have</b> a ball.	You have a ball.
3-я	He She It } <b>has</b> a ball.	They have a ball.
<i>Питальна форма (дієслово to have може утворювати питальну форму без допомоги дієслова to do)</i>		
1-а	<b>Have</b> I ( <i>got</i> ) ball?	<b>Have</b> we ( <i>got</i> ) a ball?
2-а	<b>Have</b> you ( <i>got</i> ) a ball?	<b>Have</b> you ( <i>got</i> ) a ball?
3-я	<b>Has</b> { he she it } a ball?	<b>Have</b> they ( <i>got</i> ) a ball?
<i>Дієслово to have може утворювати питальну форму за допомогою дієслова to do</i>		
1-а	<b>Do</b> I <b>have</b> a ball?	<b>Do</b> we <b>have</b> a ball?
2-а	<b>Do</b> you <b>have</b> a ball?	<b>Do</b> you <b>have</b> a ball?
3-я	<b>Does</b> { he she it } <b>have</b> a ball?	<b>Do</b> they <b>have</b> a ball?
<i>Заперечна форма</i>		
1-а	I <b>have not</b> a ball.	We <b>have not</b> a ball.
2-а	You <b>have not</b> a ball.	You <b>have not</b> a ball.
3-я	He She It } <b>has not</b> a ball.	They <b>have not</b> a ball.

## Дієвідміна дієслова *to do* в теперішньому часі

Особа	Число	
	<i>Однина</i>	<i>Множина</i>
<b><i>Стверджувальна форма</i></b>		
1-а	I do morning exercises.	We do morning exercises.
2-а	You do morning exercises.	You do morning exercises.
3-я	He She    does } morning It        } exercises.	They do morning exercises.
<b><i>Питальна форма</i></b>		
1-а	Do I do morning exercises?	Do we do morning exercises?
2-а	Do you do morning exercises?	Do you do morning exercises?
3-я	Does { he } do morning } exercises? }	Do they do morning exercises?
<b><i>Заперечна форма</i></b>		
1-а	I do not do morning exercises.	We do not do morning exercises.
2-а	You do not do morning exercises.	You do not do morning exercises.
3-я	He She    does } not do It        } morning exercises.	They do not do morning exercises.

## Тривалі часи (Continuous Tenses)

<b>The Present Continuous Tense</b>		
I am <b>going</b> to the Zoo.	I <b>am not going</b> to the Zoo.	<b>Am</b> I <b>going</b> to the Zoo?
You are <b>going</b> ...	You <b>are not (aren't) going</b> ...	<b>Are</b> you <b>going ...?</b>
He She is <b>going</b> ... It	He } She } <b>is not (isn't)</b> It } <b>going</b>	<b>Is</b> {he } {she } <b>going ...?</b> {It }
We are <b>going</b> ...	We <b>are not (aren't) going</b> ...	<b>Are</b> we <b>going ...?</b>
They are <b>going</b> ...	They <b>are not (aren't) going</b> ...	<b>Are</b> they <b>going ...?</b>
<b>The Past Continuous Tense</b>		
I } He } <b>was going</b> She } It }	I } He } <b>was not</b> She } <b>(wasn't)</b> It } <b>going.</b>	<b>Was</b> {I } {he } <b>going ?</b> {she } {it }
We } You } <b>were going</b> They }	We } You } <b>were not</b> They } <b>going</b> <b>(weren't)</b>	<b>Were</b> {We } {you } <b>going?</b> {they }
<b>The Future Continuous Tense</b>		
I <b>will be going</b> We ( <b>'ll</b> )	I <b>will not be going</b> We ( <b>shan't</b> )	<b>Shall</b> I <b>be going ?</b> we
I } You } <b>will be going</b> He } <b>( 'll )</b> She } It } We } They }	I } You } <b>will not</b> He } <b>(won't) be</b> She } <b>going</b> It } We } They }	I } you } <b>Will</b> she } <b>be going ?</b> he } she } it } we } they }

## Доконані часи (Perfect Tenses)

<b>The Present Perfect Tense</b>		
I / you / we / they <b>have</b> just <b>moved</b> to a new flat.	I / you / we / they <b>have not (haven't)</b> just moved into a new flat.	<b>Have</b> I / you / we / they just <b>moved</b> into a new flat ?
He / she / it <b>has</b> already <b>come</b> home.	He / she / it <b>has not (hasn't)</b> <b>come</b> home yet.	<b>Has</b> he / she / it already <b>come</b> home ?
<b>The Past Perfect Tense</b>		
I / you / he /she / it / we / they <b>had finished</b> work by the end of the last week.	I / you / he /she / it / we / they <b>had not ( hadn't ) finished</b> work by the end of the week.	<b>Had</b> I / you / he /she / it / we / they <b>finished</b> work by the end of the week ?
<b>The Future Perfect Tense</b>		
I / we <b>shall have written</b> the test by 5 p.m. tomorrow.	I / we <b>shall not (shan't ) have written</b> the test by 5 p.m. tomorrow.	<b>Shall</b> I / we <b>have written</b> the test by 5 p.m. tomorrow?
You / he / she / it / they <b>will have returned</b> home by the end of the month.	You / he / she / it <b>will not (won't ) have returned</b> home by the end of the month.	You/he/ she/it <b>will have returned</b> home by the end of the month.

## Пассивный стан (The Passive Voice)

	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Present	-am } -is } asked -are } (питают взагалі, звичайно, завжди)	-am } -is } being -are } asked (питають зараз)	-have } -has } been asked (вже спитали)	-
Past	-was } -were } asked (спитали колись)	-was } -were } being asked (питали у той момент)	had been asked (до того моменту вже спитали)	-
Future	-shall } -will } be asked (спитають коли-небудь)	-	-shall } have -will } been asked (спитають до того часу)	-
Future-in-the-Past	-should } -will } be asked (спитають коли-небудь)	-	-should } have -would } have been asked (спитають до того часу)	-



## Модальні дієслова та їх еквіваленти

Модальне дієслово	Функція	Приклад
<i>can, could</i>	1. Фізична чи розумова якість, вміння	She can do it. Вона може це зробити. I can swim. Я вмію плавати.
	2. Дозвіл / заборона	Can I come in? Можна увійти?
	3. Припущення (в тв.)	She can have done it. Можливо, вона це зробила.
	4. Сумнів, недовіра (в питал. і запереч.)	Can she have done it? Невже вона це зробила?
<i>to be able (to)</i>		She will be able to do it. Вона може це зробити.
<i>may, might</i>	1. Дозвіл / заборона	May I speak to you? Можна з вами побалакати?
	2. Припущення з часткою невпевненості	She may do (have done) it. Можливо, вона це робить (зробила).
	3. Докір (might)	You might be more attentive. Ти міг би бути уважніше.
<i>to be allowed (to)</i>		He was allowed to go there. Йому дозволили йти туди.
<i>must</i>	1. Обов'язок, необхідність, наказ, порада	She must do it. Вона повинна це зробити. You must consult the doctor. Ви повинні порадитись з лікарем.
	2. Припущення з великою часткою впевненості	He must be an engineer. Мабуть, він інженер.
<i>to have (to)</i>		She had to do it. Вона повинна була це зробити.

<b><i>to be obliged (to)</i></b>		I will be obliged to call the police. Я повинен буду телефонувати в поліцію.
<b><i>to have (to)</i></b>	Необхідність під впливом обставин	You will have to go home. Вам прийдеться піти додому. I have to get up at 6 a.m. Мені приходитьсь вставати в 6 годин ранку.
<b><i>need</i></b>	Необхідність (в питал. і запереч.)	You needn't hurry. Не варто поспішати.
<b><i>should, ought (to)</i></b>	1. Моральний обов'язок, порада, рекомендація	You should visit her. Вам необхідно відвідати її.
	2. Припущення з часткою впевненості	They should be a happy family. Вони, повинно бути, щаслива сім'я.
<b><i>to be (to) в Present Indefinite, Past Indefinite</i></b>	1. Обов'язок за планом, розписом, графіком, попередньою домовленістю	The lessons are to begin at 9 a.m. Заняття повинні початися в 9. We are to meet at the corner. Ми повинні зустрітися на розі.
	2. Наказ, інструкція.	You are to go to bed! Лягайте спати!
<b><i>Shall</i></b>	1. Наказ, попередження, угроза, застереження	You shall not run away from me! Ти від мене не втечеш!
	2. Питання для отримання розпорядження, вказівки	Shall I turn on the lights? Виключити світло?
<b><i>will, would</i></b>	1. Воля, бажання, наміри	We will help you. Ми допоможемо вам (охоче)

	2. Ввічливе прохання, запрошення	Would you like some coffee? Не бажаєте кави?
	3. Вказівка на те, що предмет не виконує свої функції (в запереч.)	The knife won't cut. Ніж не ріже.

### Форми інфінітива. (The Forms of the Infinitive)

Форми	Active	Passive
<b>Indefinite</b>	to help I am glad to help him.	to be helped I am glad to be helped.
<b>Continuous</b>	to be helping .	–
<b>Perfect</b>	to have helped	to have been helped I am glad to have been helped.
<b>Perfect Continuous</b>	to have been helping	–

## Пряма і непряма мова (Direct and Indirect Speech)

Пряма мова	Непряма мова
She said to him, «Come at 3 o'clock» He said to me, «Don't go there»	She asked him to come at 3 o'clock. He told me not to go there.
He said, «I know it». He said to me, «I shall do it tomorrow».	He said that he knew it. He told me that he would do it the next day.
She asked me, «Have you written the paper?» He asked me, «Where do you live?» this (these) now here today yesterday tomorrow ago next week	She asked me if (whether) I had written the paper. He asked me where I lived. that (those) then there that day the day before the next day before the following week

## Герундій. (The Gerund)

### Форми герундія (The Forms of the Gerund)

	Active	Passive
<b>Indefinite</b>	<b>ASKING</b> He likes asking questions. Він полюбляє ставити запитання.	<b>BEING ASKED</b> He likes being asked. Він любе, коли його питають.
<b>Perfect</b>	<b>HAVING ASKED</b> I remembered having asked her about it. Я згадав, що я вже запитував її про це.	<b>HAVING BEEN ASKED</b> I remembered having been asked about it. Я згадав, що мене вже питали про це.

## Умовні речення (The Conditional Sentences)

Тип умови	Підрядне умовне речення	Головне речення
<b>I тип:</b> <i>реальна</i> <i>умова</i>	<b><i>Present Indefinite</i></b> If he works hard, Якщо він буде старанно працювати,	<b><i>Future Indefinite</i></b> he will pass his exam. він здасть екзамен.
<b>II тип:</b> <i>нереальна</i> <i>умова</i>	<b><i>Past Indefinite</i></b> If he worked hard, Якщо би він працював старанно,	<b><i>would (could, might) + Indefinite Infinitive</i></b> he would pass the exam. він здав би екзамен.
<b>II тип:</b> <i>нереальна</i> <i>умова</i>	<b><i>Past Perfect</i></b> If he had worked hard the last term, Якщо він би працював старанно в минулому семестрі,	<b><i>would (could, might) + Perfect Infinitive</i></b> he would have passed his exam. він би здав екзамен.

## IRREGULAR VERBS

Infinitive	Past Simple	Participle II
be	was, were	been
bear	bore	born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
befall	befell	befallen
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
beseech	besought	besought
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bit(ten)
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt	burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast

catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	clove	cloven
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed	clothed
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
dare	durst	dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt	dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought

find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
gild	gilt	gilt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept



kneel	knelt	knelt
knit	knit	knit
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leant	leant
leap	leapt	leapt
learn	learnt	learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mishear	misheard	misheard
mislead	misled	misled
mistake	mistook	mistaken
mow	mowed	mown
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put

read	read	read
rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewn
shake	shook	shaken
shave	shaved	shaven
shear	sheared	shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk

shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelt	smelt
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt	spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt	spilt
spin	span	spun
spit	spat	spat
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt	spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung

stink	stank	stunk [
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
unbend	unbent	unbent
understand	understood	understood
undertake	undertook	undertaken
upset	upset	upset
wake	woke	woken

wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
write	wrote	written

## СПИСОК ВИКОРИСТАНОЇ ЛІТЕРАТУРИ

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